Your World and Mine



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THE · TIEGS-ADAMS · SOCIAL · STUDIES · SERIES

Your World and Mine

Neighbors in the Air Age

By Grace S. Dawson

With

Ernest W. Tiegs and Fay Adams



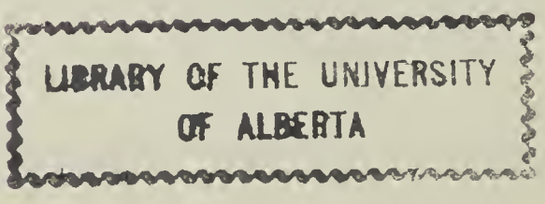
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Prologue · The Builders of America

A Story · A Ship Sails West

A gray morning dawned across the gray waters of the Atlantic Ocean. It was late in the year 1850. A ship was making its way westward. Her sails tugged and strained with the gusts of wind that filled them. On the decks of the ship were gray mounds. They looked like piles of blankets, perhaps, or sacks, but were strange and knobby in shape. Sailors hurrying to the rigging leaped over the piles. There were sounds and stirrings.

The gray light brightened under the low clouds, and a ray of sunshine shot through. Presently one of the blankets sat up. Out of it peered the face of a boy. He pushed the blanket back and drew his arm across his face. Then he shook the bundle near him.

"Dan, it is day!" he cried. "And I think the sun will shine."

The other blanket unrolled itself suddenly, and a youth appeared. He was broad-shouldered and long-armed, with a shock of red hair and a good-natured face. He blinked his eyes, looked about him at the deck and up at the breaking sky.

"You're right, Dennis, it will," he said then. "Perhaps the dark days are gone, and the journey will be a sunny one from now on."

Other mounds were stirring. In a little while the deck was full of people. They stretched their arms and legs and rubbed their eyes and spoke together. Their faces brightened whenever a sunbeam came through the clouds.

Up through the opening in the deck floor, called the hatchway, came others from their beds below. There were families with little children holding fast to their mothers, or carried in arms. The decks were crowded, and



still the people came up. They found places to sit or to stand, some leaning against the rail. Many shivered and kept their blankets around them. Above the murmur of talk the captain's voice could be heard shouting orders. Sailors pushed their way through the crowd. The wind settled to a steady blow which carried the ship more evenly.

The hum of speech grew louder and rose suddenly high.

"Here it is!"

"Here they come with the kettles!"

There was a shifting and stirring. Bowls and cups came out of bags or boxes. Little children stopped fretting and lifted eager faces.

Dennis looked toward the hatchway. Yes, there they were, two brawny sailors carrying heavy, steaming kettles. Porridge it would be, or stew, not so good as home food from his mother's kettle on the hearth, but food, anyway. And how hungry he was! Dennis had his cup ready. It was hung to his belt, so he did not have to get it out of a box. In truth, he had no box. What little he and Daniel had brought along was made into neat piles and tied in two round bundles which they could carry easily.

That was lucky, too. If they had brought chests or bags, as many others had done, they might not have got passage at all. The great docks at Liverpool had been crowded with people! Dennis had not dreamed there were so many people in the world. And the captain had said he ought not to take them, as he already had more than he ought to take on board, with the new laws that had been passed! But Dan had persuaded him that they would sleep on deck and make no trouble at all! So here they were on their way to America! Dennis could hardly believe it yet.

Daniel stood up. He stretched his long arm across to the man with the kettle who was dipping out the warm porridge. Then their cups were filled, and Dennis was making short work of his. Squinting between the people, he got a

look at the man with the kettle to see if it was the cross fellow who sometimes came. No, it was the good-natured one. There was a chance for another bit of porridge.

Slowly Dennis worked his way through the crowd. He waited until the reaching bowls were not so many. And sure enough, the brown sailor with the twinkle in his eye put another dip of porridge in his cup.

In no time at all the cups were empty, and washed at the ship's tubs. Then, to make things better yet, the sun broke through, clean as a great yellow bowl, spilling warm light over the ship, and showing blue sky through holes torn in the clouds. With that the crowd grew almost merry. There was laughter, and Dennis heard the sound of a harmonica. It made him want to skip, but there wasn't room. He wriggled a little, and bumped elbows with somebody behind him. He turned around to see who it might be, and there sat another boy, just about his own size. And the other boy was turning around to see who had bumped him.

Dennis was so surprised that his mouth dropped open. He had seen very few boys in the crowd on the ship, and this boy looked friendly, so Dennis grinned.

"My name's Dennis Carroll," he said. "What's yours?"

"John Carter. Is that your father?"

"No. That's my brother Daniel. We're going to America. We're going to earn money so that my mother and Sheila can come after a while."

"Oh," said John. "Is Sheila your sister?"

"Yes, she's only ten. I'm thirteen. I can work."

"That's my sister Emily," said John. He nodded toward a little girl beyond him. "And that's my mother beside her, and this is my father."

He looked up at the man who sat next to him, and Dennis looked too. He saw a sturdy man with a brown beard, and blue eyes which looked straight at you. The man was looking now from Dennis to his brother.

"You say your name is Carroll, and your brother is Daniel Carroll? There was a man of that name worked for me on my farm in England some years back."

Dan turned around at the sound of his name. The two men looked at each other for a moment in silence. Then Dan spoke, and his voice was full of astonishment.

"Why, and if it isn't Mister Tom Carter! Or is it, sir? I am surprised to see you on a ship America-bound!"

"Yes, I am Tom Carter. But you! It's hard to believe that you are the skinny youngster that mowed behind Dan Carroll on my farm. Where is your father, then?"

"My father is dead, sir, three years ago. I'm the only Dan Carroll now," answered the young man. "What with the potato crop failing, and so many hungry, and the new taxes making a heavy burden for those that still have a little—well, they have been hard years



for poor Ireland and all her people. To America the Irish have gone by the thousand. That or starve it was. We hung on to the land as long as we could, my mother grieving to leave the home place. But you, sir, with your good farm and all, how is it that you have pulled up roots too?"

"Well, Dan," replied Tom Carter, "it's an odd thing, to be sure. I'd never have believed it of myself a year ago. But taxes are high and the prices we get for our crops are low. Workers are hard to come by. The men who came from Ireland to harvest in past summers are gone, as you say, to the States. Our own English laborers are flocking to the cities to work in the factories. And we farmers can see little ahead but worry and loss. In the States there's land to be had from the government easier and cheaper than in England."

"And work that pays well," said Dan. "Dennis here swings a scythe with the best. Arms that can handle a scythe can handle an ax or a pick. We're going to try our luck in the New World. There'll be trees to fell and roads to make and crops to harvest, too, I doubt not."

"Yes, and the finest crop of them all, nuggets of gold!"

It was a new voice that spoke, the words coming over Dan's shoulder. Dennis had straightened up with pride at his brother's words of praise. Now he stretched his neck to see who this was, coming into the talk. A tall, lean youth with laughing eyes had been listening to them. He shifted his position so that he could face Mister Carter, and went on eagerly.

"Have you not heard the tales of California? That's where the fortune lies, gold for the gathering. And it's Michael O'Grady who is getting some of the pretty stuff."

"You are on the wrong ship, my lad," said Dan. "It's the long voyage around the Horn you should be taking."



"Any ship that carries me westward is the right one for me," replied O'Grady gaily. "Then I'll be going overland, or into another ship, or whatever. Foot-loose I am, and bound for the gold mines."

Mister Tom Carter shook his head. But before he could speak another voice broke in. A deep rumbling voice this was, with a thickness to the sound of the words that did not sound Irish nor yet English.

"That is a foolishness," spoke the new voice. "Gold there is maybe, and maybe not. But land there *is*, that we know. Here in this letter from my friend—"

There was a bump and a shove as the speaker changed his position, and then Dennis and John could see him. He was a stout, oldish German. He was pulling from his wallet a much worn, folded paper. Leaning forward he waved it at Michael O'Grady as he rumbled on.

"Here my friend says it—the Americans go for gold. They sell their farms to go. One can buy a big farm, wood and meadow and fields, and a good house also with a well. The cost is no more than I got for my farm in Saxony. That farm was small, too small to divide for six sons. Each would get but a tiny piece of land, not enough for a family. There is room in Wisconsin for all, so says my friend in this letter. To Wisconsin we go, my sons with me." He put the letter back into his wallet, and began to fill his pipe, muttering to himself, "*Kein König dort.*"

"What is he saying, Father?" whispered John. "It sounds like *kine kaney door.*"

"He means that there's no king in the United States," replied Tom Carter in a low voice. "It's a German saying. I've heard it before."

"But he said he was going to Wisconsin."

"Wisconsin is one of the States," explained Tom Carter to the boys. "They've had a bad time in Germany, so bad that there have been revolutions and uprisings. A good many are thinking it would be good to live in a land where there isn't any king."

"Is everybody going to America to get a farm, then, like us?" asked John.

"You just heard Michael O'Grady say he was after gold. Daniel and Dennis want work. There are many others on this ship who want work. I've seen them, mechanics, weavers, workers in wood and metal. Anybody who has good strong arms and a will to use them can find a job. The old German is right. Every American who goes to the gold mines leaves a place to be filled somewhere, in a factory or on a farm."

"Land and work both they want," said Dennis.

"And freedom to go where you like and do as you will," said Daniel. "Freedom from high taxes and service and that."

"Yes," nodded Tom Carter, "and people want freedom from other kinds of injustice, too. There are some Swedish people on board, they tell me, who are going on account of their religion. The Swedish Church is hard on dissenters, those who believe a little different. It's better for them to leave the country."

These were new ideas to Dennis. He wanted to think them over. "Let's walk a bit," he said to John.

There was not much room to walk on the crowded deck, but the two boys stepped over and around the seated people, and slid between those who were standing. Dennis looked at the people and thought about them.

Everybody on this ship either wanted something, or wanted to get away from something. Everybody was going on a great adventure, just as he and Dan were going. They came from different places, spoke different languages, and wanted different things. They had different kinds of trouble. But they all thought America was the place to go to.

Dennis talked to John about it as they stood by the ship's rail, looking into the western sky. Somewhere out there ahead of them lay America! Beneath their feet the deck swung up and down, but the wind held and carried them forward through the green ocean swells.

Dennis thought of the crowded docks at Liverpool, with ships sailing every day. Other ports, too, there were, from which ships sailed out. Dan had said so. Many Scottish seaports, and those in the north of Ireland, and Hamburg and Bremen in Germany, across the North Sea. And all the ships as full as this one!

How could America hold all the people? What would they find there? Was there enough for everybody to eat? Was there room for everybody to live? Someday he would know.

The Beginnings of America

The United States of America was founded and built by people from other lands. To found a country is to lay the foundations. The people who laid the foundations of the United States began to come to this country more than three hundred years ago. Each person and each family had a special reason for coming. Some, of course, came for adventure, and some to find gold, but most of the reasons had something to do with freedom. People wanted freedom from unjust laws, heavy tax burdens, or military service. They wanted freedom to live in peace and safety, freedom to think what they pleased and to speak out their thoughts to others without fear. They wanted freedom to worship God in their own way. They wanted freedom to go where they liked and to choose their own kind of work. They wanted freedom to improve their way of living if they could, and freedom to study and learn. For three hundred years they came to the shores of the New World seeking one or more of these kinds of freedom.

The first settlers came from England. They spoke the English language and brought with them many English customs and English laws. The settlements they made were called English colonies, and the colonists were subjects of the English king. Soon settlers came from other countries, from Holland, from Germany, from France. Some of them settled in groups together, and kept their own language and customs. Others settled among the English, wherever they could find the land they needed or work that they could do.

Men and women of courage they were. It took courage for people to leave their country, their friends, their home, and set off across the ocean to a place they had never seen. It took courage and a great deal of hard work to make a new home in the wilderness. They had to chop down trees and tear up the roots so that fields could be planted. They had to build their own houses. But it took more even than courage and hard work. It took co-operation. To *co-operate* means to work together with good will for a common purpose.



Co-operation made possible those new homes. No matter how strong and willing a man was, he could not by himself lift the heavy timbers to build his house. After he had cut the logs and made them ready, his neighbors came to help him lift them into place. The framework of his house rose as they all worked together. Then when the time came he was glad to lend a hand in building his neighbors' houses.

Co-operation was necessary for safety. When wild animals or bands of unfriendly Indians threatened their lives, the settlers united to drive them off. When a man was hurt or ill, friendly neighbors came to harvest his crops and to help his wife and children. Working together they did their best to make their settlement safe and comfortable.

Co-operation was necessary also for peace and justice and order. Each community needed some way of keeping order and settling quarrels. The settlers chose men to act as officials and judges. These men talked things over and managed the settlement for the good of all.

Changes came to the colonies. New settlements were started and more land was cleared. Villages became towns and cities. Corn and wheat, tobacco and cotton from the fields of the new land went to Europe. The ships brought back more settlers who worked and traded together, and, of course, talked together. At first the people who came from different countries spoke different languages. But there were more people who spoke English than spoke any other language, and so the others began to learn English, until it gradually took the place of other languages.

Freedom Must Be Kept!

Groups of people always need rules. It was not enough to come to a new land in order to *have* freedom. The colonists had to *make* their freedom and to *keep* it. They had to face hard problems and work out a way of solving them. They had to work together, even when one did not like the way another worked. They had to agree on some way to manage the colony.

The colonists needed a government, with laws to protect and help them all. Each colony formed a government, somewhat like the government of England. Soon most of the colonies had a governor appointed, that is, chosen, by the English king, and an assembly of men chosen by the people. But a time came when some of the English governors, English taxes, and English laws did not seem fair to the people of the colonies.

"This is a land of free men," they said. "We should be able to make our own laws. And we ought to have something to say about our taxes."

Excitement ran high, and fighting broke out where soldiers of the king were stationed. Then the people learned another thing. They had found out that each *man* had to work with his neighbors for the things they all wanted: safety and order and peace. Now they learned that each *colony* would have to work with the other colonies.

The colonies had to co-operate. They needed to work together to gain what they wanted. Together they demanded freedom from the unjust laws and taxes that England tried to force upon them. Finally their demands meant war—the Revolutionary War, we call it. You know that the colonists won the war, and that the united colonies became the United States of America, a free and independent nation.

But there really was no nation yet! There

were only thirteen separate states, which had united to win their freedom from the government of England. If they wanted to keep their freedom, they must co-operate again, they must unite to make a national government of their own. Each state must give up some of its independence to the nation. This was no small or easy task. Working together on the problems of peace is often harder than fighting together against an enemy. But this is what makes a democracy. A democracy is a country ruled by the people themselves, working together to make their own laws and to solve their own problems.

Co-operation made our nation. The colonies chose delegates to meet at Philadelphia and draw up a constitution, or plan of government. What a task that was! Each delegate had different ideas, and each thought his own ideas the best. It took a lot of talking. It took good will, too, and a steady purpose to find a plan that would work. At last, however, the Constitution was finished, with a plan for changing it if necessary. It has proved to be such an excellent constitution that every country which has formed a democratic government since that time has studied our constitution for ideas.

All the World Seeks Freedom

How Europe turned toward freedom. While the United States was learning to become a nation, the people of Europe were eagerly watching. More and more of them packed their belongings and set off for the New World, where there was a country for free men. During the next hundred years they came by the thousand, by the hundred thousand. Dennis, the Irish lad, and his brother Daniel, in our story, came in the year 1850. By that time the tide of *migration* across the Atlantic was running strong.

Migration means moving to another place to live. A person who migrates is a *migrant.*



Emigration means "moving out." *Immigration* means "moving in." When these travelers left Europe they were called emigrants. When they reached the United States they were called immigrants. All the time, of course, they were simply people moving to a new land, to make a home there.

The thousands of immigrants who came to the United States during that one hundred years usually came for the same reasons as the first settlers. They wanted freedom from unjust laws and from harsh rulers, from bad working conditions and living conditions. They hoped to find this freedom in "the States," for was it not the "land of the free"?

What does freedom mean? The newcomers learned, just as the first settlers had learned, that freedom is not a gift. People must make their own freedom. Freedom does not mean the right to be without laws, it means the right to make laws and obey them.

As the years passed, the immigrant who learned this lesson well made a good American citizen. He found that freedom meant for him a better chance to earn his living in the way he wanted, and the right to worship God as he chose. He began to have a share in the government of his country, and to work with others for justice for all. He found that freedom meant a greater opportunity for education. Best of all, with freedom he could always try to make life better. These are the things we want American freedom to mean, and we believe in them. We believe that every man should be free to earn his living in the way he wants to, so long as he does not harm anyone else. We believe that every man should be free to worship God in his own way, to think for himself and speak out his thoughts, and to have a share in the government by voting for those who govern the country and make the laws. We believe that every man should have an opportunity for education, a chance to make life better in his own way. We call these beliefs our American ideals.

But do these ideals belong only to Americans? Didn't the early settlers bring these ideals with them in their minds and hearts? When and where, then, did these American aims or ideals begin? They began long ago, before our country was born, in other countries across the sea. This book tells the story of our world. It tells the story of freedom, how it grew in the hearts of men and came to be a part of our world today.

Why we study the world. Our country is and always has been only one part of the larger world. Our nation is one of many nations. Since travel by airplane has become common, nations are now very close neighbors indeed. Just as the *colonies* had to learn to co-operate, now the *nations* of the world must learn to co-operate for peace and freedom. We always work better with people when we understand them. This book will help us to understand the people of other countries.

We are going to travel around to the Eastern Hemisphere, where men lived in ancient times. Ancient times are times long ago, very early in the story of our earth. We shall go back through the centuries to see where ideas of freedom began. We shall find that the ideals we call American began with the earliest men, and grew slowly through the passing ages. We shall see where they grew strongest, and how they came to this country and became our own ideals. We shall see what happened to them in other countries. In this way we shall begin to understand the world in which we live today, your world and my world, a world full of people like you and me.

Before going on to learn about our world study the globe pictures on the opposite page. What do these globe pictures of the earth show you that cannot be shown by a flat map?



Western Hemisphere



Eastern Hemisphere

Our earth is a sphere, or globe. We can make a picture of it from any side. Here are four pictures of the earth. Each one shows a hemisphere, or half of the globe. Look at them carefully. How are they different from other maps? Can you see all parts equally well? North America is shown in the picture of the Western Hemisphere, and in what other hemisphere? These are the hemisphere pictures most often made.

Northern Hemisphere



Southern Hemisphere



Study Questions

1. Why do the people of the United States speak the English language?

2. What did the founders of our country bring from England? What did they bring from other countries?

3. The United States is a democratic country. Try to explain what that means.

4. Name some different kinds of freedom, and tell something about what each means.

5. What were some of the reasons why people migrated from Europe to America?

6. Why was co-operation necessary in the growth of our country?

7. Why should we learn about other countries?

Some Questions to Think About

1. Do immigrants still come to the United States today? Do they come for the same reasons?

2. You are probably an American citizen. You have certain rights and also certain duties. What does this mean? What does this allow you to do? What does it demand of you in return?

Something to Do

1. Is there anyone in your family or among your friends who was born in another country? If so, have a talk with him (or her) and ask some questions. Write down what you learn and bring it to class.

Where was he (or she) born?
Why did he come to the United States?
How old was he when he came?
What can he tell you about the country of his birth?
What can he tell you about his journey here?
Has he ever been back to his native country?
Would he like to go?
Is he a citizen of the United States?
If so, how did he become a citizen?

2. Have each person make a list of the number of ways he or she has co-operated with others during one day, at home, at school, at play. Have several persons read their lists in class and put a sample list on the board. Discuss what would have happened if the person had not co-operated in each case.

3. Collect pictures, showing how early settlers in America co-operated in building our country.

Unit One

Peoples of the Ancient World: Their Gifts to Western Nations





The Eastern Hemisphere

1. Where East and West Divide

We are going in search of two of the oldest countries in the world. They lie in a region where the known story of man begins. Look at the globe picture of the Eastern Hemisphere above. Across the north stretches the continent of Eurasia. Europe and Asia are often called separate continents, but they are not really separated at all. Europe is simply the western part of the great continent of Eurasia. The only things which divide Europe from Asia are differences in the way people live, their different customs and ideas. That is what we are going to study.

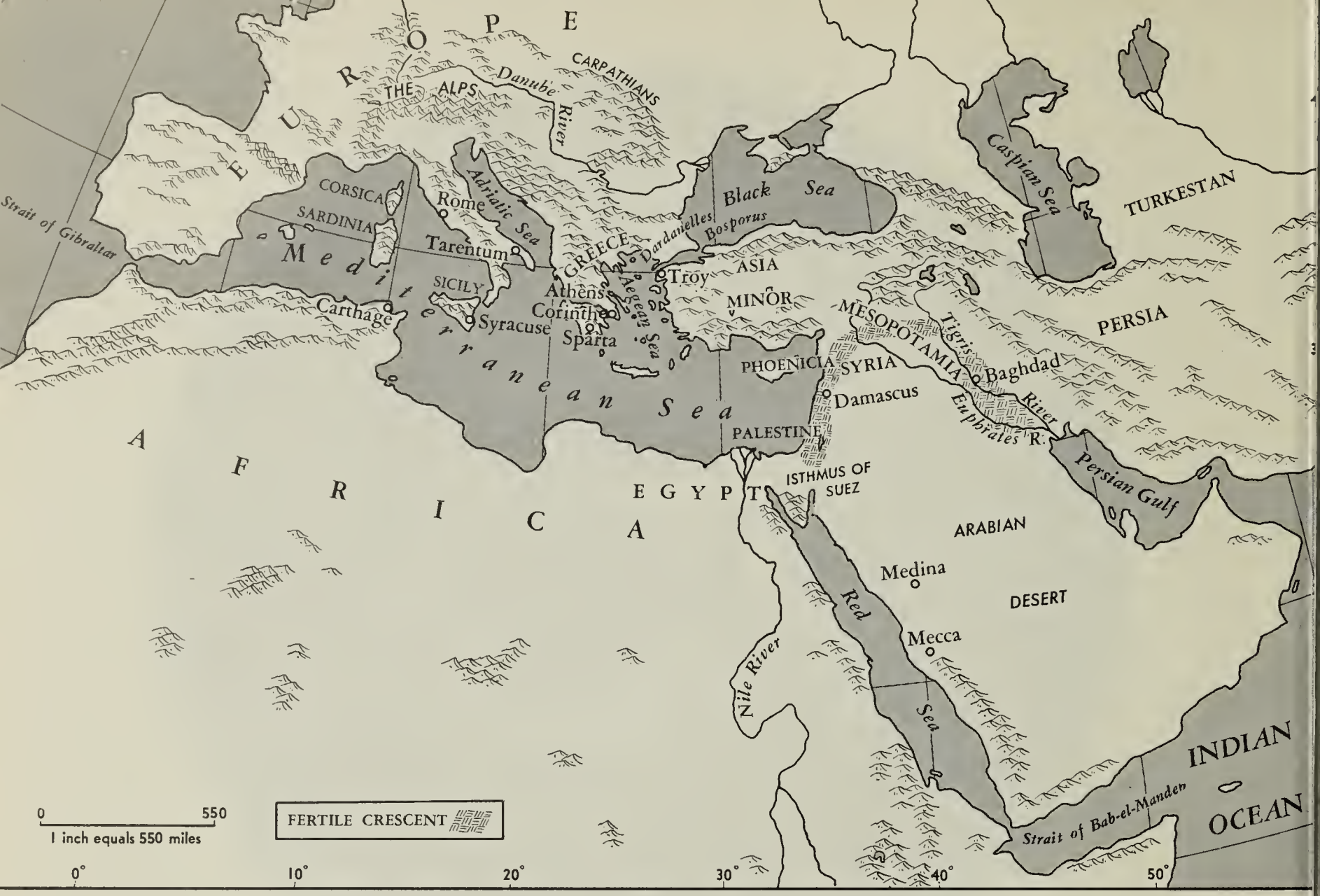
South of Europe, along the western curve of the globe, lies Africa. Europe, Asia, and Africa are actually one large mass of land. They are separated only by narrow bodies of water. Can you find two seas and two very narrow straits which separate the continent of Africa from Eurasia?



Hemisphere of the ancient world

Suppose that we now give the globe a part turn to the right. This gives us a picture of the globe like the one above. Part of Asia is out of sight around the eastern curve. In the center is the Mediterranean Sea. The long name of this sea means "in the middle of the earth." It *was* in the middle of the earth in early days, because the people of that region knew little about the earth beyond the shores of this sea and the islands which dotted it. North of the sea lies Europe; south of the sea lies Africa.

At the eastern end of the Mediterranean Sea find the isthmus, or narrow neck of land, which joins Africa to Asia. This is the Isthmus of Suez. You can see why it has been called the "bridge between the continents." Near the isthmus locate the peninsula of Arabia. It is shaped like a thick boot, lying between two narrow seas. Now we are ready for a flat map. Globes are valuable for locating places on the earth, but for studying the geography of one region or country a flat map is better.



The ancient world around the Mediterranean Sea

A Very Old Part of the World

Above is a flat map of the ancient world. You can easily find the Mediterranean Sea, the Isthmus of Suez, and the peninsula of Arabia. What are the bodies of water which almost surround this peninsula? Arabia is a plateau of barren land, or desert, where little will grow. But around Arabia on the north runs a horseshoe of valley land, sometimes called the Fertile Crescent, because its shape is like that of the new or crescent moon. In the western part of this Fertile Crescent are the two small countries of Syria and Palestine.

West of Palestine is the Isthmus of Suez, which separates the Red Sea from the Mediterranean. Across the Red Sea to the west is the land of Egypt, through which the Nile River flows northward into the Mediterranean, or the "Great Sea," as it was called in ancient times. Egypt is low and flat near the coast, and the Nile spreads out like a fan, entering the sea through several channels. Such a river mouth is called a *delta*. Even in very early times the low land of the Nile delta and the land along the banks of the river was very fertile, and was an excellent place to plant grain. The river overflows its banks in spring, bringing not only plenty of water but a layer of mud, which makes rich soil for the growing

grain. Still farther to the west stretch wide wastes of desert, where there is no water for growing things.

At the eastern end of the Fertile Crescent, north of Arabia, you will find another river valley. Down from the mountains on the north flow two rivers, the Tigris and the Euphrates, which meet and flow together into the Persian Gulf. Today this country is called Iraq. In ancient times, however, it had the name of Mesopotamia, which means "land between the rivers." Here, too, the rivers carry down loose soil from the hills, making fertile the level, well-watered lands where grain will grow.

Egypt and Mesopotamia are often spoken of as the two oldest countries in the world. If you look at them carefully on the map on page 20, you will see that they are not far apart. Each of these old countries has been called a "cradle of civilization," because it is believed that our civilization began in these two regions. This does not mean that this is where men first lived. It means that here men first began to live a settled life and leave records behind them.



Egypt and Mesopotamia, cradles of our civilization

What do we mean by civilization? In very early times men lived a wandering life. They found shelter in caves. They ate whatever the earth gave them: seeds, berries, roots, insects, and the raw flesh of animals they killed. Their weapons were sticks and stones. Their clothing was grass or leaves. Men who live in this manner we call *savages*.

As hundreds and thousands of years went by, some of the savages learned how to make life easier and safer. They discovered how to make fire, by rubbing sticks or striking stones together, in order to warm themselves, to keep animals away, and to cook their food. Slowly they learned how to make better stone weapons and tools, with polished surfaces and sharp edges. They found a way to make shelters of boughs or skins. They trained horses or oxen to carry them or their burdens, and dogs to help them to hunt. They began to keep sheep and cattle for food, and to make clothing from their skins. They found metals in the earth and made better tools from them. They were still *nomads*, or "wanderers," for they moved from place to place to find green pasture for their flocks. Some of them made clay dishes, called pottery, and hardened them in the fire. Men who have learned to do such things as these, to build shelters, to make clothing, to cook with fire, and to train animals, we no longer call savages, but *barbarians*.

Many more years went by, thousands of years. Some of the barbarians found that a river valley was a good place in which to live, pleasanter than the deserts, better than rugged mountains. Some barbarians settled along the Nile, and others in Mesopotamia. Instead of merely gathering the seeds that grew wild, they learned to plant grain for themselves and their animals, and to harvest it when it ripened. The rivers provided water for men and animals and for the growing grain. The people who settled in the river valleys stayed, building houses of stone or of clay bricks. We say that they were becoming civilized. The word *civilized* comes from an old word for city, because as people learned better ways of living, they

PICTURE-WRITING, CALLED
HIEROGLYPHICS



WEDGE-SHAPE SYMBOLS, CALLED
CUNEIFORM



began to live together in cities. Civilized men kept learning new things, improving their tools, finding new materials to use, building better and more beautiful houses. They began to keep written records. They kept changing their ways of working and living. The discoveries of our own time are a part of civilization, which is still changing.

How history began. People made better tools and houses, and built temples for their gods and tombs for their dead. Many of these things remained long after the people who made them were gone. Such things form a kind of record, so that we know how these early people lived. At last they learned to write, and we know from the things they wrote what they were doing and thinking. The people of these two cradle lands, Egypt and Mesopotamia, have left us some of the earliest records that we have.

Many different things make up these records. There are carvings and paintings, tools and furniture, parts of temples and palaces. There are rolls of *papyrus*, a kind of paper made of reeds, on which the Egyptians painted their picture writing. There are baked clay tablets, on which the people of Mesopotamia scratched their wedge-shaped signs. With the keeping of written records real history begins.

These records, which scientists study carefully, are found in the tombs of ancient rulers and in the ruins of long-buried cities. They help to tell us about the beginnings of history, more than 6000 years ago.

Civilization is a story of changes in the way men live. People who lived in different parts of the world did not change in the same way at the same time. The changes came for different reasons, but usually because men were working out some problem. "Where shall we find food to keep us from starving?" they asked each other. "How shall we find shelter from the cold and storm?" "How can we defend ourselves against wild beasts and other enemies?" Questions like these made them think and work. Food and shelter and safety were the first problems men had to solve. They found different ways of solving these problems,

An early home in a warm climate



because conditions in various parts of the earth were different. Climate, for example, is different in different places.

Climate has much to do with the problems which men must solve. Those who lived where the weather was warm raised cotton, and learned to weave it into cloth. In cold climates the men raised sheep for their wool, from which they made warm clothing. Where there was plenty of water, crops grew easily, but in dry climates, men had to bring water to their fields or else go without grain and find other food. Houses were made of different materials and built to suit different climates. People learned new things and found better ways of living by trying to solve such problems.

The surface, or form, of the land is another earth condition. People who lived on low plains could cultivate fields more easily than those who lived in rugged mountains. People who lived beside rivers or along a seacoast learned to build boats and catch fish. They found they could travel in their boats up and down the river or along the seacoast. They could visit other places and see how other men lived. They could trade their tools or grain for another people's cloth or metal. Trade and travel helped men to learn from each other and to learn much faster.

Now we can see some reasons why the people of Egypt and Mesopotamia became civilized very early. Both lands are fertile plains, with great rivers to provide water for fields of grain. Here men came together in large groups and built cities. Both lands are near the sea, where ships and trade became important. Some people migrated to nearby islands. Civilization began to spread out from these lands.

An early home in a cold climate



An early home along the seacoast



If you look at the globe pictures on pages 18 and 19, and at the small map on page 21, you will see that these two cradles of civilization are near the center of the great land mass of the Eastern Hemisphere, where Europe, Asia, and Africa come together. Vast stretches of desert lie to the south, which kept civilized ways from spreading southward into Africa. But they did spread east and west, from one group of people to another.

Because of different conditions, different ways of living grew up in the countries of Europe in the West, and in the lands in the East. We call these two different ways of living and thinking *Western culture* and *Eastern culture.* When we speak of the culture of a people or nation, we mean everything about their way of living: their tools, homes, trade, and religion. We mean their way of looking at things, their way of painting and of writing. Much of the Eastern culture, and much of the Western culture, had its beginning here at the crossroads of the East and the West.

The culture of the West. The men and women who laid the foundation of our own nation were people of Western culture. They came from Europe, many of them from England. They were people who already knew something about freedom. We want to find out how these ideas of freedom began and grew. For this reason we shall study first the people of Western culture. From the cradles of civilization we turn to the Mediterranean Sea. Take a good look at this sea on the map on page 20.

North of the Mediterranean Sea lies the continent of Europe. Part of it appears on the map. Two peninsulas, Italy and Greece, extend into the Mediterranean. Notice how mountainous they are. What high mountains tower to the north of them? Find the Black Sea. Into it, through a wide plain, flows the Danube River. In early times this region west and north of the Black Sea was open grassland. What straits connect the Black Sea with the Mediterranean? What wide peninsula lies between these two seas?

We are to study this Mediterranean world as it was a long time ago. Three parts of this world are especially important to us Americans. One is the peninsula of Greece, with its irregular coast and its fringe of islands. Another is the peninsula of Italy, with the city of Rome, capital of the great Roman Empire. The third is the little land of Palestine, at the eastern end of the sea, at the crossroads of the East and the West. Each of these countries made a great gift to our Western culture, and had a large part in shaping our American ideals.

Study Questions

1. Why are Egypt and Mesopotamia called "cradles of civilization"?
2. What do we mean by civilization?
3. What are some of the things savages learned as they became barbarians?
4. What did the barbarians learn while becoming civilized?
5. Are we still learning new things today?
6. Look carefully at the pictures in this chapter. Why did men build such very different kinds of houses?
7. Why did men settle first in river valleys?
8. Are rivers still important? In what ways?

Questions to Think About

1. In order to live, people must have food and shelter. What kind of problems did the earliest men have to work out in order to get these necessary things?
2. We too need food and shelter. How are our problems different from those of the savages?

3. Another problem is safety. What dangers threatened the earliest people, and how did they defend themselves?

4. What dangers threaten us today? Make a list of modern problems of safety, and explain how we try to solve them.

Interesting Things to Do

1. The early people of North America were the Indians. Were they savages or barbarians? What makes you think so? Find a book at home or in the library with pictures of their homes, clothing, tools, weapons. Bring it to school and share it with the class.

2. Find out if there is a museum near enough to visit. Plan a trip for the whole class, if possible, to go and see what the museum has in the way of tools, weapons, money, ornaments, or pottery of savage and barbarian peoples. Find out what country, or what part of our own country, these things came from.

3. Appoint two committees, one to study Egypt and one to study Mesopotamia. Report to the class on life in these two lands. Ask the librarian for suitable material. Perhaps the committees can illustrate their reports with pictures or prepare an exhibit of pictures. Reports can be made on (1) the pyramids, (2) the gods of Egypt and Mesopotamia, (3) irrigation, and (4) picture writing.

4. Make drawings of the schoolroom globe as it looks from different angles. See how many different views you can draw, always putting in the names of the continents you know. Imagine you are taking a journey from your home to Egypt. Show with dotted lines on your drawings the route of your train, ship, or plane. Can you show the journey on one globe picture, or will it take two?

5. Make drawings or paintings to show how men changed their ways of life as they became civilized. Arrange them in a frieze along the top of the blackboard.

6. Buy or make a notebook which you can use throughout the year for the self-test games in each chapter. You may want to design an interesting cover for it.

A Choosing Game

In your notebook copy the sentences below, completing each by choosing the right word from the different words suggested.

1. Africa and Eurasia are names of

   (*a*) islands, (*b*) mountains, (*c*) continents, (*d*) seas.

2. Egypt is a country situated on a great

   (*a*) desert, (*b*) river delta, (*c*) plateau, (*d*) mountain range.

3. The earliest men made their tools from

   (*a*) bones, (*b*) iron, (*c*) stones, (*d*) wood.

4. Men first built cities in

   (*a*) the hill country, (*b*) river valleys, (*c*) forests, (*d*) deserts.

5. The earliest transportation was by

   (*a*) boat, (*b*) ox-cart, (*c*) horseback.

2. How the Greeks Gave Us Democracy, Love of Beauty, Freedom of Mind



A Story · Schoolboys of Old Athens

Jason walked silently beside his big brother Leander. Jason was seven. He had just spent his first day at school. And what a day it had been! So many new things to do! So many boys doing them!

Jason and Leander lived in the city of Athens, in Greece, more than two thousand years ago. As they walked home from school, behind them walked Clisto, the kind slave. He carried their wooden tablets and Leander's lyre. Jason had carried his own tablet to school that morning. It was new, and it had a carved border. It was prettier than the one on which his mother had taught him his letters, and was spread with fresh, clean wax. But now it was evening, and Jason was so tired that he was glad to have Clisto carry everything, just as he had been doing for Leander for six years. Jason had all he could do to carry himself.

Up behind them rose the great hill called the Acropolis, with its temples and its many statues. The rays of the setting sun lighted the huge bronze figure of Athena, the goddess of wisdom, the favorite goddess of Athens. They glinted brightly on the point of her spear. The boys were used to all this, and did not turn their heads as they crossed the market place. On each side stretched long covered porches where the men of Athens gathered to talk about everything in the world.

Jason stole a glance at Leander. Then he held his shoulders straight and looked down at the path ahead, as a boy should who was old enough to go to school.

They turned into one of the narrow, crooked streets. It was darker here and not very clean, and they had to pick their way carefully. On both sides the plain walls of square, flat-topped houses lined the way.

Jason was so quiet that Leander had almost forgotten about him. Leander was tired, too, but there was a glow in his heart. That day he had thrown the discus better than ever before. He had sent the heavy plate spinning straight and far. That was not all. The master had praised him for his unusual grace of position and movement. Leander wanted to be strong and skillful with discus and spear, and of course he wanted also to be graceful as he moved. A real Greek athlete was always graceful. That was what athletics were for, to build bodies that were strong and beautiful, not just to break records.





"If only I can do it again!" thought Leander. "Perhaps I may be allowed to enter the Games of Athens next year. And then, someday, who knows?"

A bright dream rose in Leander's mind, a dream of a great open field with thousands of watchers crowding the hillside. Once his father had taken him to the Olympic games. Leander could still see it all in his mind, the crowds, the excitement, the venders with their wares. And the games themselves! Bright sunshine on racing figures! The curving flight of spears from upraised arms! The smooth motion of the discus-thrower and the speeding disk!

Someone bumped against him. Leander came out of his dream with a jerk, and looked down at his little brother. Jason had stumbled.

"You are tired, Jason," said Leander. "Never mind, we are nearly home now. It will not be so hard tomorrow. What did you like best?"

"Running," said Jason promptly. "But I did make my letters well. The master said so."

The boys stopped before their door, and Clisto came up to knock on it. Bars rattled and the door swung outward to admit them.

The rooms of a Greek house are built around two or more open spaces, or courts. The boys' sister, Lydia, was sitting at her loom in one of these courts. She looked up as her mother, Cynthia, came through a doorway. Cynthia smiled down at her daughter, and spoke quietly.

"Put away your loom now, Daughter. You must be tired. It is late. Why did you take up your weaving again?"

"I wanted to finish this piece, Mother. See, it is all done," said Lydia. "Do you like it?"

"You weave nicely, Lydia," said her mother, looking at the work. "One of these days they will choose you to help to weave the festival cloth for Athena."

Lydia looked up at her mother. "Are you worried about something, Mother?" she asked.

"I am wondering what has kept your father so late," said her mother. "He went to the docks early this morning to see about repairs on one of the ships he has given to Athens. He should have been home long ago."

"How I should love to go to the docks with him!" said Lydia. "He took me once when I was little. I still remember that the docks smell of fish and seaweed and new lumber. There are so many things a girl cannot do. I wish I could go to school, too. I can make my letters as well as Leander, even if he is two years older."

"Yes, you can read and write well for a girl of eleven," said her mother. "But it is not fitting for a girl to be seen in public places. I wonder how Jason got along. He seems small to start to school."

"There they are," exclaimed Lydia. "I hear the door."

The boys hurried through the outer court.

Jason ran to his mother, and she drew him down beside her on a low couch.

"Are you tired, my son?" she asked.

"Well, not very," said Jason. "It was fun, Mother. Oh, you should have heard the boys say poems! Why, they were the same stories you have told us so often, about fighting the Trojans, and the burning of Troy! Only the words sounded grand, like music, Mother. And the boys acted them. This way!" And Jason forgot how tired he was. Leaping up, he seized a stick and waved it like a sword.



"Well, what have we here, a warrior?" said a deeper voice. A tall man stood in the doorway, attended by two slaves.

"Father!" cried the children together.

"Myron, what kept you so long?" said Cynthia anxiously.

"Important things," replied her husband. "A ship just came in, with the messengers from Sparta. Philemon was among them, and he had bad news to tell. Messengers from Corinth were in Sparta, begging the Spartans to join them in making war against us. Philemon was allowed to speak. He spoke peacefully but strongly. He reminded the Spartans of our Thirty Years' Truce, unbroken now for fifteen years. He said that Athens stood for peace and peaceful ways, but that if Sparta chose war, Athens would know how to defend herself."

"Will there be a war then, Father? Like the Trojan war in the stories?" asked Jason with excitement.

"I fear there will be a war, my son; but war is not so glorious as it sounds in stories. It means siege and bloodshed, disease and death. It means the loss of thousands of Athens' finest men. It means suffering, not only for the conquered but for the conquerors, too. In a real war there are no victors."

"Then why do people fight, Father?"

"Why, indeed, my son! Men are greedy and jealous, Jason. The Spartans have long envied and feared our power and wealth, the beauty of our city, and the wisdom of our great men. If war comes, it will be a fight to the finish, I fear. Only the gods know what will be the outcome. I have given orders to build another trireme for the navy. Athens will need every ship we can provide. It may be a long, long war. Before it is over, perhaps you boys will have to bear arms in battle. The war of the Greeks against the Persians was terrible, but a war of Greek against Greek is worse. This hour finds me heavy of heart."

Who Were the Greeks?

The land of Greece. The story you have just read tells about events which happened a long time ago, more than 400 years before the birth of Christ. Jason's father was right to feel anxious about a war between Athens and Sparta. That war lasted for many long, weary years, and brought death to thousands of brave Greeks. In the end Sparta was victorious, and the greatest days of Athens came to an end.

Now where were the cities of Sparta and Athens? Who were these Greeks who loved athletic games and admired strong, graceful bodies, who taught their children poems about warrior heroes, and who fought so bitterly, city against city? These are the things we are going to find out. Let's begin with the things we can learn from maps.

Suppose we turn back to the map of the Mediterranean world on page 20 and locate the peninsula of Greece. Notice how close it is to the eastern end of the Great Sea. Ships could easily reach Greece from the older civilized countries of the Fertile Crescent. Now find the Black Sea. Northwest of this sea a rolling grassland extends up the valley of the Danube River. These grassy plains were important to Greece, for it was from this region that the people came who settled in Greece.

Now we are ready for the close-up map of

Greece, which you will find below. Notice the small map of the Mediterranean region in the corner of the map of Greece. You see that the land of Greece is shaded in to show its position in this region. What is the first thing you notice about the map of Greece? Probably it is the very uneven coastline, dented with many bays. We can guess that Greece, with so many good harbors, would be the home of a seafaring people. What is the name of the long, narrow gulf which nearly cuts the peninsula in two? The section south of this gulf is called the Peloponnesus. Only the narrow isthmus of Corinth connects it with the mainland. In the southern part of the Peloponnesus you will find the city of Sparta. Where is the city of Athens?

The country of Greece is very mountainous, with only a little land that is level and fertile enough for grain to be easily grown. The climate is mild, the air is clear, and the sky is blue. The coast is fringed with beautiful islands, some of them rocky and bare, some tree-covered and green. To the east is the Aegean Sea, dotted with islands all the way to its eastern shore, which is the coast of Asia Minor.

Greece in the early days and its position in the Mediterranean world





Asia Minor means "the smaller Asia." It is the name of that part of Asia which extends westward between the Black Sea and the Mediterranean.

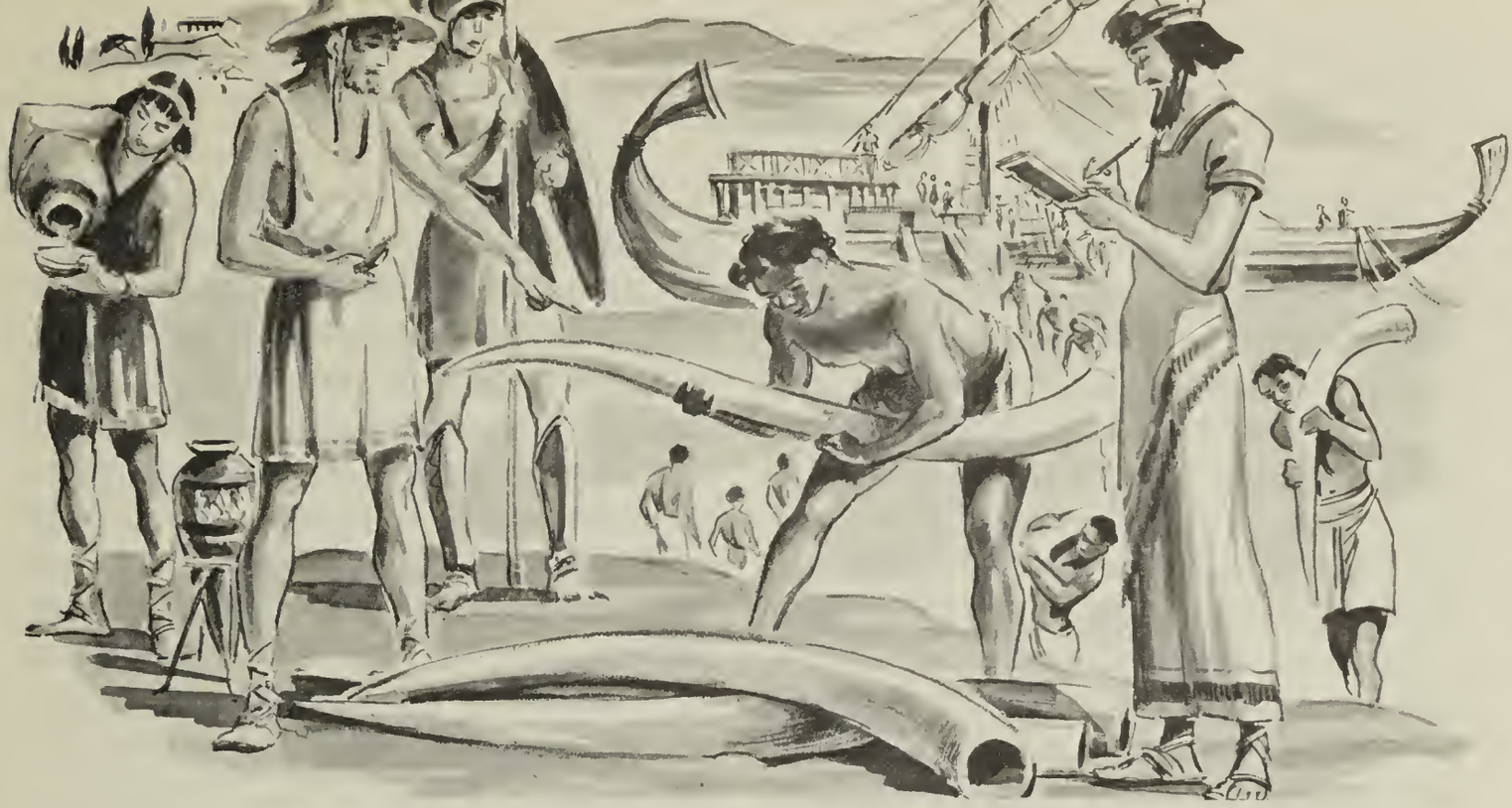
About four thousand years ago tribes of barbarians began to move into the peninsula of Greece. We now count our years from the birth of Christ, and four thousand years ago would be just about two thousand years before Christ. We write it 2000 B.C.

The barbarians who invaded Greece came from the north. They had been living on the grassy plains beyond the Black Sea. No one knows just why they began to move southward into Greece. Perhaps dry years made it hard for them to find enough pasture for their cattle. Perhaps other barbarians from farther north or east attacked them, forcing them to move. Perhaps it was partly natural restlessness, love of adventure, or the desire for new things.

For whatever reason it was, they came, in bands of a few hundred, or a few thousand, each group with its chief. They brought their belongings in carts, and drove their cattle before them. It was a great migration of people seeking a new home. The sheltered valleys of Greece would provide safe camping places and pasture for their flocks. They must have looked with amazement on the mountains, the islands, and the blue sea, for these were new to them.

Civilized people were living here already, but the newcomers were accustomed to fighting for what they wanted. They conquered these people and drove some of them out. Some they made slaves, for this was the usual custom of the time, and people who had been conquered in war expected to serve their conquerors. The barbarians let the houses fall into ruins, for they were not used to living in towns. They roved through the hills with their herds, and settled in small groups, fighting among themselves for the choicest valleys.

Years passed by, and other waves of barbarian tribes came south. The earlier barbarians, who had come before, gathered together their possessions and migrated farther south. Some found their way across the narrow isthmus into the Peloponnesus. Others made rough boats and ventured over the blue waters of the Aegean Sea to nearby islands. Nearly a thousand years passed before all the great migration was over.



Phoenician ships came to trade in Greek ports

These barbarians became the people we call the Greeks. While they were moving from place to place in their new peninsula home, they were learning new things. They found that grain would grow in the valleys, and olive trees and grapevines on the hillsides. They learned from the civilized people they had conquered how to carve stone and make pottery. They began to lead more settled lives, and to build houses for themselves. They also learned much from the civilized countries to the east, for ships came from these countries to the shores of Greece.

The development of our alphabet

PHOENICIAN	GREEK	ROMAN
𐤀	Α	A
𐤁	Β	B
𐤂	Γ	C
𐤌	Μ	M

Most of the sailors on the ships which came to Greece were Phoenicians. Find Phoenicia at the eastern end of the Mediterranean on the map on page 20. Their land was so small and hilly that they made their living from the sea. They were merchants and traders, and their ships went westward to the farthest shores of the Mediterranean. Along these shores they had settlements, or colonies, to help them with their trade. People in the colonies would gather the products of the land and have them ready for the ships when they came into port. The most important of these Phoenician colonies was Carthage. Be sure to locate it on your map on page 20, for we shall hear more of Carthage later on.

The Phoenician traders kept their accounts in writing. They used some picture signs as sounds, and spelled words with them. The first two sounds were called *alpha* and *beta*, from which we get our word *alphabet*. The Greeks made use of this alphabet and improved it. Many people believe that we owe our alphabet to these Phoenician traders.

The Greeks took these new ideas and began to improve on them. During the years between 1000 B.C. and 500 B.C., they were becoming civilized. They learned to weave cloth, and to make beautiful vases and bowls. They built houses in towns, and temples to their gods. They learned to build excellent ships, and became as good sailors as the Phoenicians. They became traders, and planted colonies far to the west: Syracuse on the island of Sicily and Tarentum on the southern shore of Italy. Look again at the map on page 20 and locate these places. These and other settlements became rich and important cities, and are sometimes called Great Greece. Still other colonies of Greeks grew up on the coast of Asia Minor and became busy trading cities.

The Greeks worshiped many gods. They believed that each god or goddess had power over some part of their lives. Apollo was god of the sun, of health, and of music. Artemis was goddess of the moon and of hunting. There was a god of war, and a god of fire, and many other gods and goddesses. Zeus was the father and ruler of all gods and men. The Greeks loved to tell stories about their gods. These stories make the gods seem very much like human beings, only more powerful and magnificent. After the Greeks learned to write, they set down hundreds of these stories, which we can still read today.

The Greeks also had stories about their heroes. During the years when they were conquering the lands of Greece and settling the

The Greeks wove fine cloth



The Greeks made beautiful vases and bowls



islands of the Aegean, they fought many battles. They told tales of these battles and of the daring of their leaders, and sang songs about their bravery and skill. The blind poet Homer gathered these legends together in two famous books which we still read today. One of them, called the *Iliad*, tells the story of the Trojan War and the siege of Troy, a city of Asia Minor, by Greek warriors. The other is called the *Odyssey*, and describes the adventures of Odysseus, one of these warrior kings returning from the war. Both are full of stirring tales. They are among the greatest poems of all times.

The Greeks had no nation. All Greeks spoke almost the same language, followed the same customs, and worshiped the same gods, but they were not under one government. Mountains divided the land into little enclosed valleys, and kept the groups apart, each where it had settled. In each valley grew up a city, surrounded by vineyards, olive trees, and fields of wheat and barley, which supplied the people with food, oil, and wine. Each of these cities became a separate little state. Each had its own festivals and holidays, its own favorite god, its own trade, its own colonies, and its own government. Some city-states were governed by a king, some by a council. The most important of these city-states were Sparta, in the southern part of the Peloponnesus; Olympia, in the western part; and Argos, in the northeastern part; Corinth, on the narrow isthmus; Athens, to the east of the isthmus; and Thebes, a little to the northwest of Athens. By 500 B.C. these were strong cities. You can find them on your map of Greece.

The Greeks built excellent ships



The Greeks cultivated their olive trees





The Greeks loved athletic games and contests. Once every four years the city of Olympia invited all Greeks to come to the celebration of a religious festival in honor of Zeus, "father of gods and men." There were contests of skill: running, jumping, wrestling, throwing the spear and the discus. The finest athletes from all over Greece took part. The winners were crowned with olive wreaths and were treated with great honor. The contests were known as the Olympic games, and took place every four years. The Olympic games of modern times are named for these games of old Greece.

Often the city-states quarreled bitterly. They sometimes made war upon one another. The Greeks loved their freedom and were always afraid someone might try to take it away. They distrusted any state, even any Greek state, which grew richer or more powerful than the others. They feared that a powerful state might suddenly seize their city and make them slaves, as conquerors did in those days, or demand tax money called *tribute* from them. Sparta and Athens were the strongest of these cities, and were always great rivals.

Sparta was a military city. It was ruled by two kings and a council of elders. The people of Sparta lived almost entirely out of doors, and all the boys were trained as soldiers. At the age of seven they left home to live in special camps where all the men, even those who were married, came to eat together. They ate plain food, exercised day after day, and were

taught to suffer pain without making a sound. Even today anyone who suffers great pain without complaining is called a Spartan. The women, too, received athletic training. They took part in the life of their city, and were taught to be strong and brave and to suffer hardship with courage.

Athens was a very different kind of city. Here, too, a boy started going to school at seven, but he lived at home. He was trained in athletics, but also learned to sing and to play on the lyre, a small harp. He learned the poems which told the legends and history of Greece, as Jason did in our story. When he was eighteen he entered military training, but only for two years. While a soldier he also prepared himself to become a citizen of Athens. As a citizen he joined the older men in the public places, and took part in their discussions. They talked of the things that happened in their city, and of their ideas about life. They listened to those who had traveled, or to those who had thought deeply. They were especially fond of talking about the "good life." The good life meant more things to the people of Athens than to the Spartans. The Athenians wanted more than food and safety and military strength. They wanted beautiful things, and they wanted interesting ideas and thoughts. The Athenians believed it was important to think and talk about all these things.



Athenian citizens met in the market place to talk

Athenian women, however, were not so free as the women of Sparta. They lived very quietly at home, managing their houses and their slaves, and were seldom seen in public.

Athens was the first democracy. Democracy is a Greek word which means "rule by the people." All free men over thirty who had been born in Athens could vote in the assembly, which met to pass laws and decide public questions. They also served in the courts of law and drew lots for public office. Only the highest officials were elected, all the rest were chosen by lot. So almost every citizen had his turn at holding an office. Of course not every man made a good official, but the men of Athens thought this was the best way to divide the honor.

Athens was proud of her democracy and the freedom of her citizens, but there were many who were not allowed to be citizens. One third of the people of Athens were slaves. A captive taken in war was forced to be the slave of his conquerors. Such captives were bought and

sold in the market, and were made to do the heavy work of the country. They dragged the stone and marble for buildings or pulled the oars of ships. Household slaves had an easier life. If they had a good education, they taught the children of their master. A slave who was a skillful worker at some craft or trade might be paid a little and allowed to buy his freedom.

The women of Athens were not citizens either. They were loved and cared for, but were not considered the equals of men, and took no part in the life of their city. Stranger still, those men who came from other places to live in Athens were not allowed to become citizens, no matter how long they lived in the city. The men of Athens would not share their freedom with new friends or with conquered foes, nor even with the women of their own families. Real freedom in Athens belonged to only a small group.

How the Greeks United to Fight the Persians

Athens and Sparta united to fight an enemy of all Greece. This was how it happened. Persia lay far to the east, in the highlands beyond the Tigris-Euphrates Valley. See if you can find it on the map on page 20. Today we call this country Iran. The Persian kings became very powerful, and conquered all the neighboring countries as far west as Egypt and Asia Minor. This made Persia an empire. An empire is a government which extends over several countries.

The Persian kings were *absolute* rulers. This means that their commands were laws. Their subjects had no freedom and no share in the government. Many of the cities of Asia Minor had been settled by Greeks. Their people had the Greek love of freedom, and they hated the rule of the Persians. They sent messengers to Athens, begging for help in their fight for freedom. The people of Athens sent a fleet of twenty ships to help the Greek cities of Asia Minor to resist the Persians. But in spite of this the cities were taken again, and held by Darius, king of the Persians. So Darius wanted to punish Athens.

Darius led an army along the coast and took possession of the northern part of the Greek peninsula. He tried to march south into Greece, but did not succeed and returned home. At a later time he sent a fleet across the Aegean Sea, and his Persian troops landed at Marathon, only twenty-five miles from Athens. The army of Athens marched in great haste against the enemy. Although there were twice as many Persians, the Athenians defeated them in a hard-fought and famous battle.

Themistocles, a wise general of Athens, knew that this would not be the last of the Persians. He decided that Athens must be ready when the Persians returned, and he set to work to build a great fleet.

The leaders of Sparta also saw the danger that threatened Greece. Sparta had no fleet, but she had the strongest army in Greece.

The route of Xerxes





In addition to their own men, the Spartan leaders called for soldiers from neighboring cities. They all agreed to work with the Athenian fleet against the Persians when they came.

Come they did, by land and by sea. Darius had died, and now the Persians were led by Xerxes. Xerxes sent a large fleet of ships across the Aegean and led a huge army along the coast into Greece. The little map on page 38 shows you how they came.

Leonidas, king of Sparta, took three hundred of his Spartan soldiers and nearly five thousand other Greeks, and marched northward to meet the Persians. They took their stand at a narrow place between the mountains and the sea. Here, at the famous pass of Thermopylae, the brave Spartans and their friends held back the great Persian army for three days. But a Greek traitor showed the Persians another pass through the mountains. Leonidas had sent soldiers to guard that way, but they had to fall back and let the Persians pass. The Persians could now surround the Greek army. Most of the Greeks fled, but the three hundred Spartans and seven hundred other Greeks stood firm. When the foe closed in, these brave men died rather than surrender.

The Persians marched in triumph to Athens. They set fire to the city, but the people had fled to the island of Salamis. The Greek fleet sailed into the bay of Salamis near Athens. You can find this bay on your map. Xerxes was so sure that he would conquer the stubborn Greeks that he had his throne placed on a hill overlooking the bay. Here the monarch sat to watch his fleet conquer the navy of Athens. The Persian ships followed the Greeks into the narrow waters between the island of Salamis and the mainland. The Greeks had less than three hundred ships, but they fought furiously. The Persian fleet was so large that the ships had no room to turn about, and, being crowded together, they were crippled or sunk by the Greek ships. Xerxes, who had come to watch a Persian victory, saw his fleet destroyed. Greece was saved.

The battle of Salamis, in the year 480 B. C., was one of the most important victories of all time. If Xerxes had conquered the Greeks, our own history here in America might have been different. But through the skill and courage of Athens, the freedom-loving Greeks were free to develop their own way of life. No Persian army ever set foot in Greece again.

Those were glorious days for Athens! Her citizens went to work at once to rebuild their city which the Persians had burned, and Athens became the most honored of all Greek cities. A leader arose among her generals by the name of Pericles. He did so much for Athens that he held the leadership for many years. Pericles wanted his beloved Athens to be the most beautiful city in the world. He had temples built, and theaters, and other public buildings. Everywhere there were statues of the gods and of famous men, and the Athenian citizen took great pride in his city. These years are called the Golden Age of Greece, and it was Athens which made them golden.

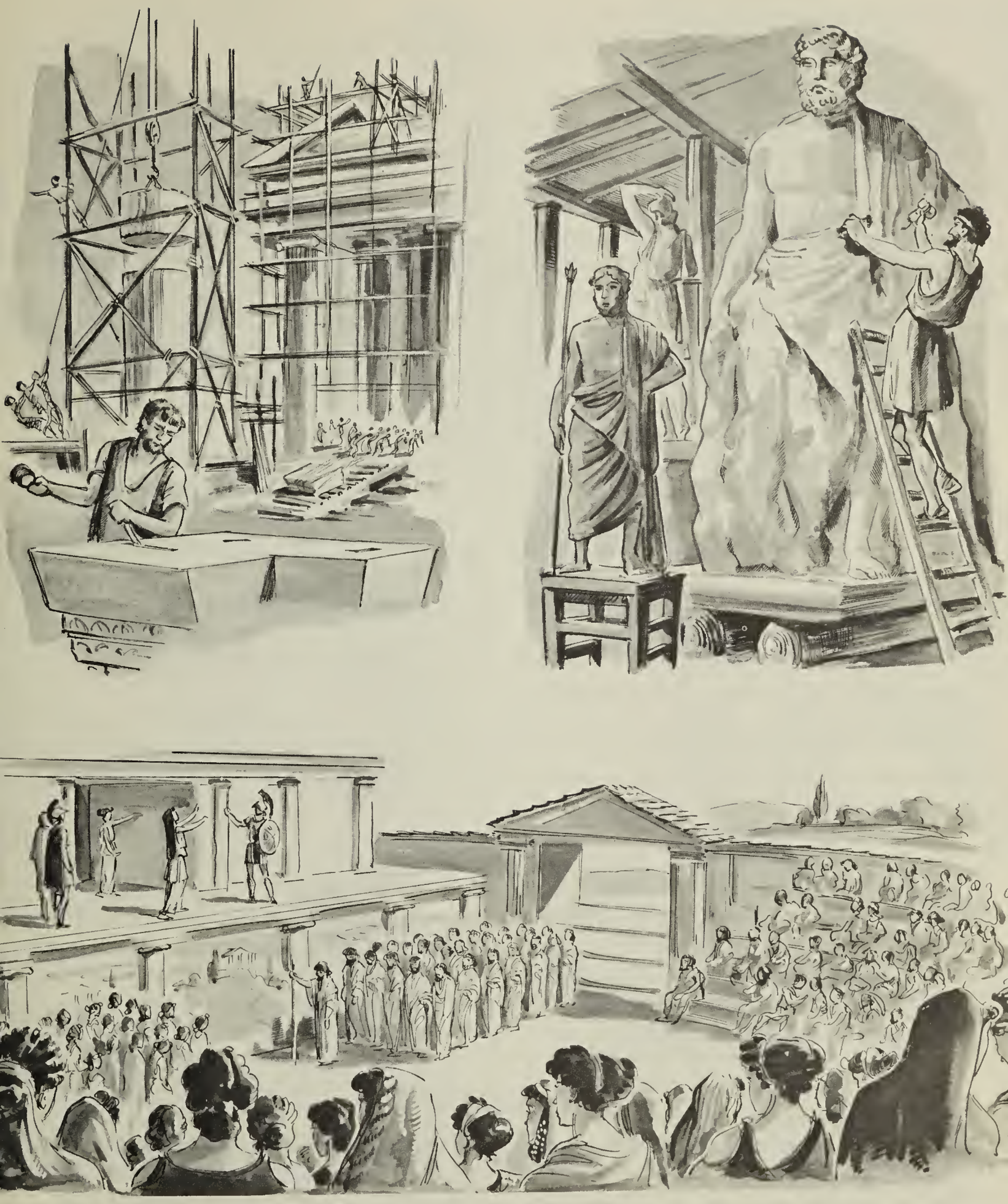
The Athenians knew how to fill active lives with beauty and interest. They lived simply, and spent much of their time in the open air. They ate plain food, fish and vegetables and fruits. Their houses were almost bare, but the vases which held their oil and wine, the bowls and cups from which they ate and drank, were lovely. Rich and poor wore plain but graceful garments, a straight, loose, knee-length tunic for the men, a longer one for the women, with perhaps a robe over the shoulders. Most of their love of beauty they put into their city. If a man had wealth he did not build a grand house for himself, but instead paid for a beautiful public building which everyone could enjoy. Artist and builder worked eagerly and proudly for Athens.

Many of these buildings stood on the Acropolis, a high hill in the center of the city. The most beautiful temple of all was called the Parthenon. It was built to honor their goddess Athena. It was a simple building, with rows of columns, and above them a band of sculptured figures, telling stories and legends of Greece. The proportions, or measurements, were so pleasing and satisfying, and the carvings so lovely, that many people consider it the most beautiful building the world has ever seen. The famous Greek sculptor Phidias had charge of the carving, and he himself made the huge ivory and gold statue of Athena which stood within the temple.

When we look at the work of Greek sculptors, we see the result of the Greek love of athletics. They admired a strong, healthy, graceful body, and studied to carve such figures of men and women. They became very skillful and made beautiful and lifelike statues. Artists today still study these Greek models.

The Greeks wrote beautiful poetry, too. At religious festivals there were always choruses singing or reciting poetry. Gradually these poems were changed into dramas, or plays. These dramas were given in open-air theaters and were free to all the people. During the time of Pericles many great dramas were written. Some of them are still read and acted today.

During this period lived two great Greek writers of history. The first, Herodotus, is sometimes called the "Father of History." He travelled through the countries ruled by Persia, learning all he could about that empire. He brought back many tales and interesting descriptions of the eastern way of life, so different from that of his own country. All these he put into his long account of the Persian Wars against the Greeks. Thucydides, on the other hand, wrote only about things which happened in his own lifetime, especially the struggle between Athens and Sparta which caused the fall of Athens. Thucydides fought in these wars as an Athenian general. His history is not as interesting as that of Herodotus, but it is more exact. He is known as the first scientific historian.



The Greeks had many fine architects, sculptors, and writers

Great Philosophers and Scientists of Greece

The word *philosopher* comes from the Greek language, and means "a lover of wisdom." The Greeks deeply respected their philosophers. About this time, during the years just before 400 B.C., there lived in Athens one of the greatest philosophers the world has ever known.

Socrates was called the Great Questioner. Socrates was a poor man, the son of a stonemason. He made small images, or statues, for a living. But the most important thing in the world for Socrates was thinking out the truth about life. He was the most interesting talker in Athens, and young men gathered eagerly to listen to him. He made them think, too, by asking them questions. "What *is* beauty?" he would ask. "What do you *mean* by justice?" And long arguments followed. The young men loved this way of studying and learning about life, and no party was complete without this interesting and surprising man.

Socrates no longer believed in the gods of the Greeks. He believed in one supreme God. He thought a good life was a right life. He said that a man should think out what was right, and then do the right thing because it was right, not in fear of punishment.

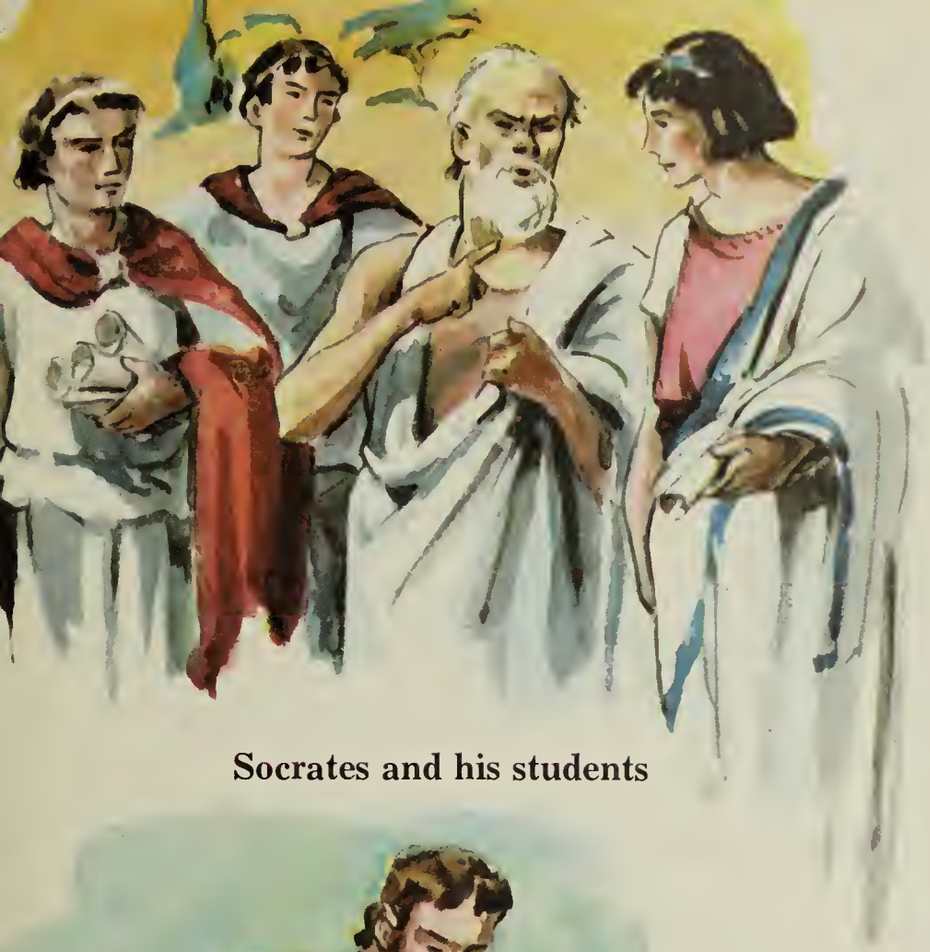
The teaching of Socrates displeased some of the most important Athenians. They accused Socrates of teaching the young men not to fear the gods. A citizens' court condemned him, and ordered him to die by drinking poison. Socrates remained calm, drank the poison, and talked quietly to his companions up until the moment of his death.

One of the followers of Socrates was a young man named Plato. He was deeply grieved by the loss of his teacher. He called Socrates the wisest, the most just, and the best man he had ever known. Plato's friends, fearing that his life, too, might be in danger, persuaded him to leave Athens. He visited other countries. Remembering the things Socrates had taught, Plato studied the ways of men and the governments of nations, and thought long and deeply about what would be the best possible kind of government. When he came back to Athens he opened a "school of ideas." Soon he too became famous as a philosopher and teacher.

Socrates had written nothing. But Plato wrote books. He wrote as Socrates had talked, by asking questions and thinking out answers. From Plato's books we learn what Socrates taught, and also some of the things Plato himself thought out later. His most famous work is called *The Republic*. It tells about the government Plato thought would be the finest possible, a state ruled by the best and wisest people in it. Like Socrates, Plato believed that thoughts and ideas were much more important than things. "The greatest freedom," he said, "is the freedom to study and learn, the freedom to seek for truth."

A third Greek philosopher, Aristotle, stands high among the world's great thinkers. Plato was a pupil of Socrates, and Aristotle was a pupil of Plato. Aristotle was a clear thinker and a busy writer, who wrote about philosophy, mathematics, history, and science. He was never tired of noting the habits of plants and animals, birds and fish. He wanted to know the *why* of everything he saw, and set to work to find the answer. Aristotle taught men to look about them at the world of nature. He is sometimes called the first *scientist*, because he observed, or examined, things so carefully, and wrote down exactly what he found.

Other Greek thinkers also deserve to be called scientists. Some studied numbers and measurements. One of them, named Euclid, wrote a book about geometry much of which



Socrates and his students



Plato writing the *Republic*



Euclid explaining his geometry book



Hippocrates and his patients

is taught in our high schools today. Others studied the stars, and learned a great deal about the shape and size of the earth. A famous teacher named Hippocrates is sometimes called the "Father of Medicine." He made a careful study of the human body, its bones and muscles. He taught that healing had nothing to do with magic, but was a matter of natural cause and cure. He made his students promise always to use their skill and knowledge for the good of mankind, and never on any account for evil purposes. A promise of this kind, which is made today by all young doctors on their graduation from medical school, is named after him the Oath of Hippocrates.

These and other scientists made Athens a center of new knowledge as well as of old wisdom. Books were written on medicine, mathematics, and art. In this period, and more and more during the years which followed, men of science went to Athens to study, and Greek scientists were considered leaders. At last Greece was conquered, but even this did not end the honor given to Greek art and learning. Instead, it spread far and wide. Let's see how this happened.

The End of the Golden Age

The Golden Age of Athens lasted only about fifty years. The old jealousy among the Greek cities was not dead. Athens, with her excellent fleet, was the head of a league of island cities. Sparta was the leader of a group of cities on the mainland. The cities led by Sparta formed a league of their own. War broke out between the two groups, just as Myron of Athens in our story feared it would. The fields of Athens were laid waste and her people crowded into the walled city for safety. There was not enough food or water, and a dreadful disease, called the plague, spread through the city killing thousands. Pericles was one of those who died. For about thirty years this war, called the Peloponnesian War, dragged on, until Athens was worn out with misery and starvation. When it ended at last, Athens was ruined. Her fleet was gone, many thousands of her citizens were dead, her wealth had been used up, and she had lost her proud leadership.

The downfall of Athens was the beginning of the downfall of Greece. No other city was able to take her place. The other cities continued to disagree among themselves, nor would they unite in anything for long. This was just the chance for somebody from outside to take possession of all Greece—and somebody was ready.

North of Greece lay the country of Macedonia. Its people were like the northern tribes which had come into Greece so long before. They were still barbarians, rude and wild, and were ruled by a king named Philip. He had been in Thebes, and knew that the Greek cities were quarrelling among themselves. He did all he could to stir up more quarrels. He bribed some officials, and tricked others. Then he gathered his army and began to conquer the little states one by one.

Greece was united at last, but by a conqueror. Luckily, Philip admired the Greeks, and he did not destroy their cities. He merely ordered each city to pay tribute money and sent soldiers to see that this was done. He had great respect for Aristotle, and asked him to teach his own son, Alexander. Thus the young prince was educated in Athens. Philip was killed when Alexander was only twenty, and in 336 B.C. the boy became ruler of Macedonia and Greece.

Greece Was Conquered, but Greek Ideas Spread Far!

Although so young, Alexander was a great general. He had no desire to unite the small states and make them into one great peaceful state. Instead he thought it would be glorious to be a conqueror like his father. So he gathered his army and set forth to conquer the countries of the Persian Empire.

In just a few years he led his army into Asia Minor and down the coast through Syria into Egypt. Then he turned eastward and marched through Mesopotamia, deep into Persia itself. He conquered everything and everybody that got in his way. He even made one march beyond Persia into the lowlands of India! He called himself the ruler of the world. "Would that I had more worlds to conquer!" sighed Alexander.

Alexander made certain changes in the Persian Empire, to make it easier for him to rule. He appointed some Persians and some Greeks to serve as governors under him, in the hope that the Greek and Persian peoples would unite to form one empire. He explored the waterways around Persia and Arabia, to try to discover a sea route to Egypt. Study the map below to understand the extent of Alexander's empire. But one day in 323 B.C. he caught a fever, and died at the age of thirty-two. By conquering the countries the Persians had ruled, he had put an end to the old Persian Empire, but he did not build a lasting state of his own. By the year 300 B.C. the empire of Alexander the Great was broken into several parts, each region ruled by a different man.

One important thing did come out of Alexander's conquering march. Wherever his soldiers camped for long, they built a town. Alexander often named these towns for himself, and left a guard of soldiers in each one. Alexander loved Greek ways, and these towns became Greek settlements. Greek merchants

The empire of Alexander





Scholars studying in the library at Alexandria

came at first to trade and then they stayed in the towns. People from the neighboring countryside moved into the towns. From Asia Minor all the way to India such towns were sprinkled like little bits of Greece, and some of them grew large and became cities. The most famous of these was Alexandria in Egypt, at the mouth of the Nile.

In this city Alexander started a fine library. To it he sent books and other interesting things which he gathered from different countries. Alexandria became a center of learning, and philosophers and scientists from every country went there to study. Athens was still famous for her art and learning, and Alexandria in Egypt became almost another Athens. Thanks to Alexander, Greek ideas spread over the crossroads of the East and the West.

The Greatness of Greece

The Greeks had many weaknesses. The Greeks were the first people of the West. They did not build a great nation of free people, however, and their country came under the rule of other conquering nations. Why did this happen? Chiefly because the city-states were all eager for power. Each wanted to be the richest and strongest, each wanted to rule the others. Besides this, many Greeks were not trustworthy. Public officials often accepted *bribes*, money paid for doing special favors. At times a man would even betray his own state and help an enemy, if he gained by it.

The city-states sometimes formed a league in time of danger, but they did not trust each other. No one state knew when another would break a promise, or try to get around it by some clever trick. This is one of the reasons why the Greek states were never able to unite for long or to form one nation. In order to work together and build together, people must be able to trust one another.

The real greatness of the Greeks lay in their culture, their way of life. We all must have food, shelter, and safety in order to live. But few people are satisfied with only these necessary things. We are not happy just to keep alive, we want life to be enjoyable and

interesting. We want to be doing, or making, or learning something. You and I have these desires, which are deep down in everybody, and the Greeks of course had the very same desires.

The Greeks were great because they made these things an important part of life. They gave much time to making beautiful things to use and enjoy. They delighted in talking together about worthwhile things and in thinking about the world and the people in it. The joy of creating beauty and the adventuring of a free mind are two of the great gifts of Greece to our civilization. The third is the idea of democratic government, in which the people vote on public questions, make their own laws, choose their officials, and take part in managing their country. These three treasures the Greeks gave to our Western culture.

There came a time when these treasures seemed to be lost. We shall read how they were found again, and how they came down to us. But first we shall find out about Rome, how Rome conquered the world, and how Greek culture conquered Rome.

Study Questions

1. When did the barbarians begin to migrate into Greece, and where did they come from?
2. What helped the Greeks toward civilized ways?
3. Why did the Greeks become traders?
4. Where did they plant colonies, and why?
5. Why did the Greeks form many small city-states?
6. How was life in Sparta different from life in Athens?
7. Why are the battles of Marathon and Salamis important?
8. What three great Greek thinkers can you name? Why do we remember these men?
9. What changes did the Peloponnesian War bring to Greece?
10. How did the quarrels of Greek cities help Philip of Macedonia?
11. Who was Alexander the Great, and how did he help to spread Greek ideas?
12. What were some of the faults of the Greeks? What made the Greeks great?

Subject for a Class Discussion

Greek Cities and Citizenship

1. We have cities and states in our country. How were the Greek city-states different from our cities?
2. How were they different from our states?
3. Is drawing lots a good way to choose city officials?
4. How do athletic games and contests help to make good citizens?
5. Which Greek city did the most for us, Olympia, Sparta, or Athens?
6. Why was it fortunate for us that the Persians did not conquer the Greeks?

Divided Sentences

In your notebook copy the incomplete sentences in *List A*. Then complete each sentence by choosing the correct ending from *List B*.

List A

1. Socrates was _ _?_ _
2. Aristotle was _ _?_ _
3. Alexander was _ _?_ _
4. Themistocles was _ _?_ _
5. Apollo was _ _?_ _
6. Homer was _ _?_ _
7. Phidias was _ _?_ _

List B

a philosopher known as the "Great Questioner."

an early Greek poet who wrote of gods and heroes.

a ruler of Macedonia and Greece, who conquered a great empire.

the Athenian general who defeated the Persian fleet.

a famous Greek sculptor who directed the building of the Parthenon.

the Greek god of health and of music.

a Greek thinker and writer, sometimes called the first scientist.

Circles of Latitude

Take a good look at the globe picture below. Notice the circles running east and west around it. All these circles are called *parallels of latitude*. Those circles nearest the north and south poles are the smallest. Where is the largest? What is it called? We use parallels of latitude to measure distances from the equator, and in this way we locate places on the earth. The equator divides the earth into North and South Latitude, just as a certain street may divide a town into north and south parts. The United States is in North Latitude.

If you travel completely around the earth you have traveled around a circle. Distances along a circle are measured in degrees. There are 360 degrees in a circle. We often write it 360°, since the little circle means "degrees." If you travel from the equator to either the north or the south pole, you have traveled one fourth of the way around the earth, or one fourth of a circle. From the equator, which is numbered zero, to either pole, therefore, is one fourth of 360°, or 90° of latitude. Putting all ninety circles of latitude on a small globe would make it very crowded. Most globes have a circle of latitude only every ten or

Circles of latitude of the globe



fifteen degrees. How many are there on your schoolroom globe? You must remember that every point along one of these circles is exactly the same distance from the equator as any other point on the same circle.

Some of the parallels of latitude have special names such as (1) the arctic circle, (2) the antarctic circle, and (3) the two circles called the tropics. Find the arctic circle and the tropics on your globe picture. Many things help to make the climate of any region. Latitude, or distance from the equator is one of these things. These specially named circles divide the surface of the earth into regions. The region between the tropic of Cancer and the tropic of Capricorn is called the tropical region. The equator runs through the center of the tropical region. The region around the north pole, inside the arctic circle, is called the north polar region. The region inside the antarctic circle is the south polar region. Between the north and south polar regions and the tropical regions lie the north and south middle latitude regions. They are called by these names because each of them is located about midway between a pole and the equator. In what region is the United States?

Find the parallels which mark (1) the northernmost latitude of the United States, (2) the southernmost latitude of the United States, (3) the latitude halfway between the equator and the north pole. What kind of climate do we find in the southern part of our country? Are the winters severe here? On the globe picture you can look at the Mediterranean Sea and the countries upon its shores. What can you learn about their latitude? Would you expect that their climate might be like that of our Southern States?

Interesting Things to Do

1. There is not room in this book to tell all the interesting things about Greece. Here are some topics for class reports. Read about one of them in another book and tell the class what you have found out.

The Greek Alphabet. Where did it come from? Do you know any of the letters? How are they used today other than in spelling Greek words?

The Olympic Games. What were the contests, rules, prizes?

Chief Gods of Greece. What were their names and what did they stand for?

Oracles. What were they? When and how did the Greeks consult them?

Iliad and Odyssey. Tell some of the stories of these poems of Homer.

Legends of old Greece. Read one of the following, and tell the story:

The Minotaur — *The Pomegranate Seeds*
The Golden Fleece — *The Dragon's Teeth*

2. Make a play out of the story at the beginning of the chapter, and choose members of the class to act it out. You can make it longer by having Jason and Leander tell more of the things that happened at school. Perhaps your teacher will let you invite a social-studies class from another room to see the play, when it is ready.

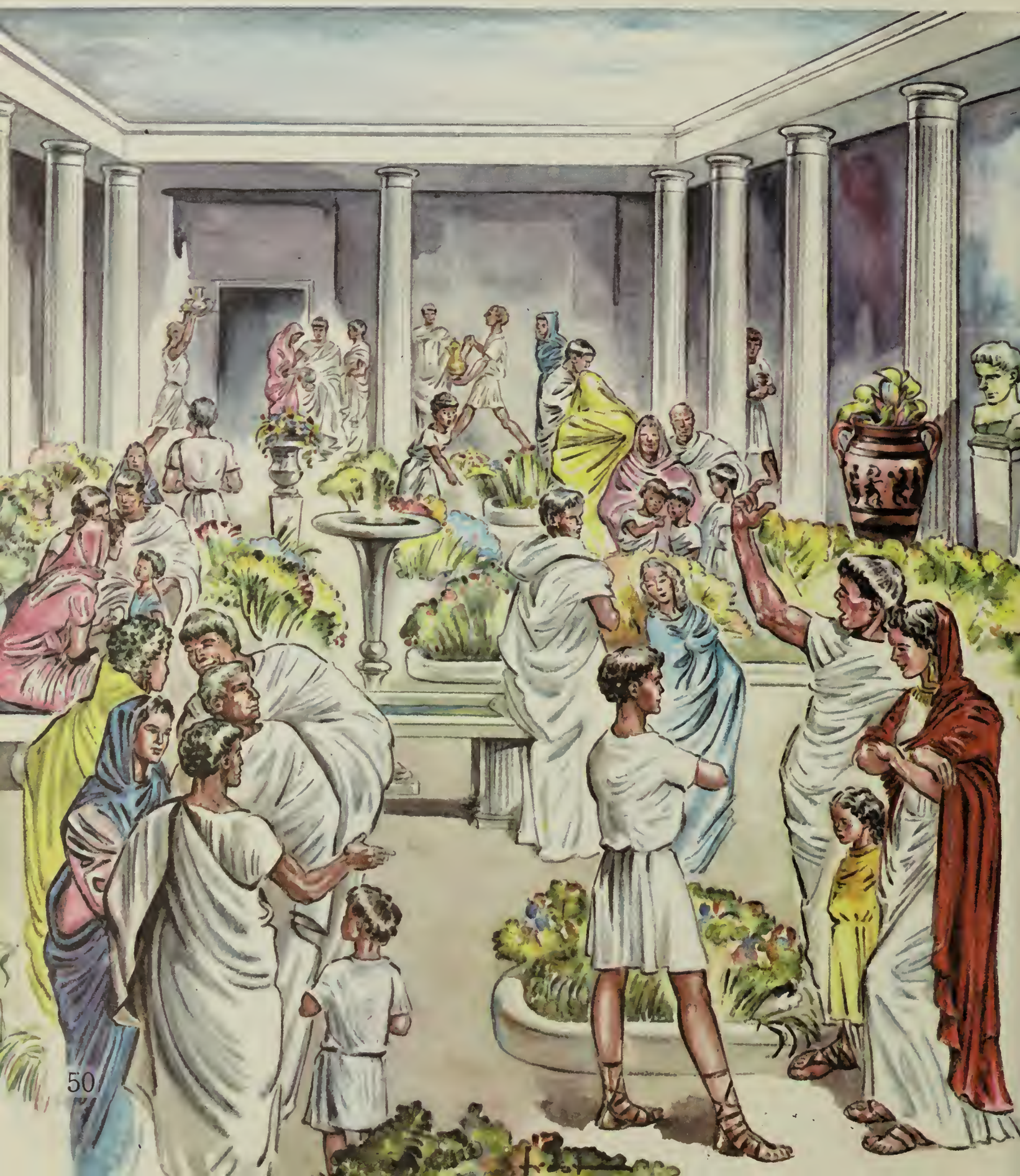
3. Start an exhibit, appointing a group to collect pictures of Greek buildings and art. Ask your teacher or librarian to help you find pictures of the three kinds of Greek columns: Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian. Try to find pictures of buildings in the United States that are copies of old Greek buildings.

4. Look about your own town and make a list of the buildings which are a little like those of the Greeks. See if you can recognize the different kinds of columns. Bring your list to class.

5. Draw the plan of a Greek home. The librarian will help you to find some books to guide you.

6. The hero of a Greek play wore boots with very thick soles to make him look taller. The other characters wore masks which showed whether they were meant to be funny or sad. The masks also showed other feelings. Perhaps the librarian can find you some pictures of Greek masks, and you can make similar ones of paper.

3. How the Romans Gave Us Government: Respect for Law and Justice



A Story · To Be a Roman Citizen!

The great day had come, the birthday of Paulus Flaccus. Paulus was seventeen. Today he would put on the toga, the robe which grown men wore. It was a festival day for the family of Paulus. The Flaccus house was thrown open to their friends. Of all who came and went no one was more excited than Titus. Titus and his twin sister Lucia had come to Rome with their mother and father to share in the birthday celebration. They had never been to Rome before, and everything was new and wonderful.

Early in the morning the household gathered in the pleasant open court in the center of the house. Everyone was there, all the family of Uncle Marcus Flaccus, his two married sons with their wives and children, and some other cousins—a good many people the twins had never seen before. In the covered porch around the court slaves moved quickly and quietly.

Lucia stood between her father and mother. She felt shy with so many strangers. But Titus was never shy. He wanted to see all that was going on. He darted in and out until his father spoke to him.

"Come here, Titus. You must stand quietly now, and listen!" On the hearth the sacred fire waved in slender yellow ribbons. Beside it stood Uncle Marcus. He lifted his hand, and all talking was hushed. Uncle Marcus placed on the flames some pieces of bread and poured oil from a slender vase—offerings to the Lares, the protecting spirits of his home. Then his deep, quiet voice sounded in the morning prayer.

"And for this day, blest above other days, we give especial thanks," he said at the end of the prayer.

As he stopped speaking he laid his hand on the shoulders of Paulus. Paulus took a step forward. He was slim and straight and tall; and was wearing a new tunic, the straight knee-length garment worn by everyone. In his bare arms he carried his old tunic, the one he had worn only yesterday. Leaning over, he laid it down before the hearth. Then he stood up and spoke, very slowly and clearly.

"O Lares of my Fathers, you who have brought me to manhood, here I lay before you the tunic of my boyhood. As a man I go forth into life. Even as you guarded me in the fields of our household, still guard me wherever I go. As you bred the young child, so guide and sustain the man."

Then Uncle Marcus took from around the neck of Paulus the fine chain with the little gold locket called the *bulla*. Paulus had worn it ever since he was a baby. Now it would hang above the hearth where his father was



LIBRARY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

placing it, unless Paulus needed it on some future day. He might grow so famous that other men, or even the gods themselves, might grow jealous and try to harm him. Then he could take the bulla down and wear it for protection.

Titus watched with interest. He slipped his fingers in the neck of his tunic and touched his own bulla gently. He had never thought much about it before.

As the chain was hung in place a voice began singing. Then everyone joined in. It was a song of greeting to Paulus on becoming a man. The twins had never heard it before.

"Thetis composed it," explained Aunt Claudia. "Thetis is one of our Greek slaves. He is a fine musician, and taught all our children to sing."

There were more people in the court now. Slaves were admitting them through the outer court beyond. They came in quietly and took their places among the family.



As the song ended two slaves brought in the toga of Paulus. It was a long piece of cloth with rounded ends, fresh and new and woven of the whitest wool. The slaves laid one folded end over the shoulder of Paulus. It fell down in front to his feet. Then the longer part was draped around his back, under his right arm, and again thrown over his left shoulder, with the loose end hanging down the back. Another touch here and there, and every fold was in place. Paulus stood as still as a statue, but his black eyes sparkled. When the slaves had finished they saluted Paulus and withdrew.

"The gods be kind to you, my son," said Uncle Marcus. Then he turned to the others. "And now down to the Forum!"

Suddenly everyone was talking and moving forward to greet Paulus. There was laughter and friendliness. Some of the guests had brought gifts for Paulus. Presently all of them, old and young, friends and relatives, left the house in a gay crowd, with Paulus in their midst.

Lucia held her uncle's hand, and Titus skipped alongside. Behind them came their father and mother with Aunt Claudia and the cousins. Ahead of them went Paulus with a group of his own young friends. They were having a jolly time joking with each other.

"See how serious Paulus looks," said one. "You would think he was a Senator already!"

"Don't mind him, Paulus," said another. "He has worn the toga only a month himself."

"What do we do in the Forum, Uncle?" asked Titus.

"Paulus writes his name on the roll of citizens," replied his uncle.

They turned into the Forum. Here Titus saw an open space, busy with people. On all sides stood fine buildings. Titus chattered with excitement.



The Roman Forum and Capitoline Hill

"What Temple is that, Uncle? Where do you go to Senate meetings? Oh, what a big building! Is that the Law Court? Father has told us about it. Look, Lucia, that's the Temple of Jupiter on the hill! I didn't think Capitol Hill would be so *high*! Where does Paulus write his name?"

"Right here," said Uncle Marcus, as they paused before a building at the foot of the hill. "This is the Tabularium."

"What is the Tab—the Tab—"

"The Tab-u-la-ri-um," said Uncle slowly. "It is the State Record Office. There above it is the Temple of Janus. See, the doors stand



wide open. Not until the Republic is entirely at peace can those doors be closed."

Paulus entered the Tabularium, and Titus wriggled through the friendly crowd and pressed close to his side. Soon he was back again with Lucia.

"I was right at his elbow," he said. "I saw him write in the big roll: Paulus Horatius Flaccus. Is he a Roman citizen now, Father?"

"Yes, he is, by law," said Father. "But the ceremony is not really over until he has made his offering to Jupiter. We go up to the Temple now."

Along the way other friends and acquaintances passed them. Each one called to Paulus.

"Greeting to the new citizen!"

"May the gods smile on you, Paulus."

"Hail, Paulus Flaccus, Roman citizen!"

When the sacrifice in the Temple was over they stood outside looking down across the Roman Forum. Titus touched Paulus on the hand.

"Does it feel different, cousin, being a citizen?" he asked.

"It's a good feeling," said Paulus. "How old are you, Titus?"

"I am ten," said Titus. "But the boys in our village said I could not be a Roman citizen."

"They did not know that your family is one of the old noble families of Rome," said Uncle Marcus. "Your father, like many other nobles, bought a farm. He lives there because he likes country life better than city life. But he is a Roman citizen still. And you will always be a Roman citizen, Titus, no matter where you live. It is a wonderful thing to be a Roman citizen. Rome rules all Italy. She rules the Mediterranean. But who rules Rome, Titus?"

"The Senate and the Roman People," replied Titus promptly.

"Right!" said his uncle. "But the real power in Rome is the Law. I am a senator, but I am only one man. The Law is greater than any man. I, too, must obey the Law."

"I know the Twelve Tables of the Law," said Titus.

"That is a good beginning. You were named for a great man, Titus. Do you know his story?"

"No, Uncle, tell me who he was."

"Well, Titus, years ago there was a Roman consul called Titus Manlius. He was leading the Roman army in a war against the Latins, who were our close neighbors. A hard battle was ahead, and the Consul commanded quiet and strict order. No one was to do any fighting until the order was given, on pain of death. The son of the Consul—his name was Titus, too—was in charge of a troop of scouts. One of the Latin warriors on the other side saw him and taunted him. He asked him scornfully if his little troop was the great Roman army. Young Titus got so angry that he forgot orders. He fought with the man and killed him, and brought the dead warrior's armor and weapons back to his father. But his father was deeply grieved. He said that his son had disobeyed orders and must die, even though he was brave and the son of the Consul. And Titus Manlius ordered his own son put to death.

"That may seem stern and hard, Titus, but I am glad you know the story now. Rome is strong because the Romans are strong people. They know how to keep their word and how to obey orders. Duty and loyalty to Rome come first."

Titus looked across the Forum, with its temples and courts, and behind it the hills of Rome. Beyond rolled the River Tiber, flowing into the Great Sea, where Roman ships sailed in triumph. His heart swelled with pride. He looked up at his uncle.

"I know, Uncle," he said. "It is a wonderful thing to be a Roman citizen!"

The Roman Republic

Who were the Romans? They were the people of Rome, the strongest city of Italy. Look at the peninsula of Italy on the map on page 20. It is shaped like a narrow boot with a high heel and a long, pointed toe. Close to the toe is the three-sided island of Sicily. Here in Sicily and in parts of Southern Italy the Greeks planted colonies and built cities.

These Greek cities were being built about 750 B.C. At this time, farther north in Italy lived many half-barbarian tribes. These groups had migrated into Italy from the Danube Valley, beyond the mountains in the north. They started coming about the same time that other tribes like them were coming into Greece, 2000 years before Christ. But they became civilized much later. Italy was farther away from the older civilized countries at the eastern end of the Mediterranean, and the ships from these countries reached Italy less often. And then the land of Italy itself was different from Greece.

Look carefully now at your large map of Italy on page 57. Notice the central chain of mountains, called the Apennines, which runs down the length of the peninsula. On the eastern side these mountains are rugged and steep. The barbarians who came into this region found little land that was level, and along the east coast there were no good natural harbors. It was almost as if Italy had turned its back on the east.

On the western side of the mountains, however, the slope is more gentle. It was here, on the open rolling plains of western Italy, that most of the tribes settled. The fertile plains in this part of Italy are small, and separated by hilly ridges, or bold, rocky headlands. The tribes settled their boundaries by fighting. Back in the mountain regions other tribes re-

The king, attended by lictors with fasces



mained wild nomads, roving with their herds, but on these low plains the barbarians learned to till the fields, and to plant olive trees and grapevines. Like the Greeks, they built towns, which in time became small city-states.

Strongest of these city-states was Rome. The city of Rome stood on the south bank of the River Tiber. It was built on a group of seven hills, and it spread across the valleys between them. The Roman city-state was very small and did not extend far beyond the city itself. The Romans were a warlike and sturdy people, and fought constantly with the more civilized Etruscans who lived north of the Tiber. They also fought with wilder tribes from the mountains. The Romans became bold warriors, and there are stirring stories of their courage and daring. Gradually they conquered the tribes on all sides of them, and forced them to accept the leadership of Rome.

The tribes living near Rome spoke the Latin language like the Romans. They called themselves allies of Rome, and they looked to Rome for help whenever danger threatened their towns. Rome defended these little towns, but she also ruled them. If they objected to Roman laws, she quickly showed them that she was the strongest city.



Italy in the early days and its position in the Mediterranean world

The Romans learned to govern themselves well. This did not happen all at once, it took many years. Rome was at first a republic, a state with a ruler chosen by the people. He was helped by a body of three hundred nobles called the Senate. In early times this ruler of Rome was called a king. The Etruscans, the neighbors of the Romans on the north, were a strong people, who had learned some of the arts of civilization. An Etruscan prince conquered the Romans, and for a time Etruscan kings ruled Rome. Some of them were very good kings. When the king appeared in public he was attended by servants called *lictors*. Each attendant carried a bundle of rods called *fasces*, in the center of which was bound an ax. This meant that the king had the power of life and death over his subjects. The time came when the kings began to use their power cruelly and unjustly. The Romans would not endure this, and the Senate drove out the king.

"We will have no more kings," they said. "We must not give so much power to one man. Let us have two rulers, so that one can check the other. We will let them rule for only a short time."

They chose two men called consuls, and allowed them to rule for one year. At the end of that time new consuls were elected. A consul was given great power while he was in office. He ruled the city in peace and led the army in war. Like the king, he was attended



by lictors with fasces. His chair was much like a camp stool with curved ivory legs, and it was called the *curule* chair. The fasces and the curule chair were the signs of the Roman *imperium*, or power to rule.

The Romans believed firmly in choosing the men who were to rule them. So long as the men they had chosen held the imperium, the Romans obeyed them absolutely. They felt that they were not obeying the man himself, but the power of the Roman state. That is, they were obeying the law, just as the uncle of Titus in the story explained; and the consul stood for the law.

In times of great or sudden danger one man was appointed *dictator*. His power was absolute and complete, but he held it for only six months. There is an old story of one such time of sudden danger.

One of the Roman consuls was away leading an army in battle. While he was gone, another enemy approached and prepared to attack Rome. The second consul led a band of soldiers out of the city to meet this danger, but while he was in camp with his men the foe surprised him by night and surrounded his camp. To meet this danger the Roman Senate decided to appoint a dictator, and they sent messengers to a respected old Roman named Cincinnatus, who had been both senator and consul. Cincinnatus had moved to his farm, and the messengers found him plowing in the field. He had laid aside his outer clothes and wore only his tunic.

"Send for your toga," they said. "We have a message from the Senate." The toga, you know, was the robe of a Roman citizen, and the toga of a senator had a purple border as a sign of that honor. No doubt the messengers thought it would not be fitting to give Cincinnatus their great message until he had put on his toga. Much surprised, Cincinnatus sent hurriedly to the house for his purple-bordered robe. He wiped the sweat from his face and put on the toga. Then the messengers saluted him as dictator and urged him to hurry to Rome.

Cincinnatus took charge of another army, went to the rescue of the second consul, and defeated the enemy. He permitted the conquered leaders to go free, but sent them first "beneath the yoke." The yoke was an arch made of two spears standing upright in the ground, with a third one fastened across the top. In order to pass under the yoke a man had to bend his neck and bow his head. This was a sign that he was absolutely conquered and humbled, and it hurt the pride of a warrior very much.

Cincinnatus and his army returned and marched in triumph through the streets of Rome. He was offered a large sum of gold, but

he refused it. "I am a Roman," said Cincinnatus. "A true patriot needs no pay for serving the country he loves." Back he went to his farm. He had been dictator for only sixteen days! Cincinnatus might have taken the gold and used his power to do what he pleased, but he thought it was better for Rome that no one man should have great power for a long time.

The Roman government grew slowly. There is an old saying that "Rome was not built in a day." Like the city itself, the government of Rome developed slowly. The people had to learn the way to good government. The kings were driven out and the first consuls were chosen about 500 B.C. We call this date the beginning of the Roman Republic. The consuls were allowed to rule for a year, the dictator for not more than six months; but the Senate continued year after year.

It was a great honor to be a member of the Roman Senate, for these three hundred men were the real rulers of Rome. They consulted together, decided what should be done, made the laws, and gave advice to the consuls. This body of men had had long experience in managing the nation.

The senators were expected to think long and carefully about the laws and decisions they made. Some senators would make speeches expressing their ideas, and the other senators listened to what each had to say before voting on a new measure. Many of the senators were men of wisdom and good judgment, who were determined that Rome should continue to have a strong and orderly government.

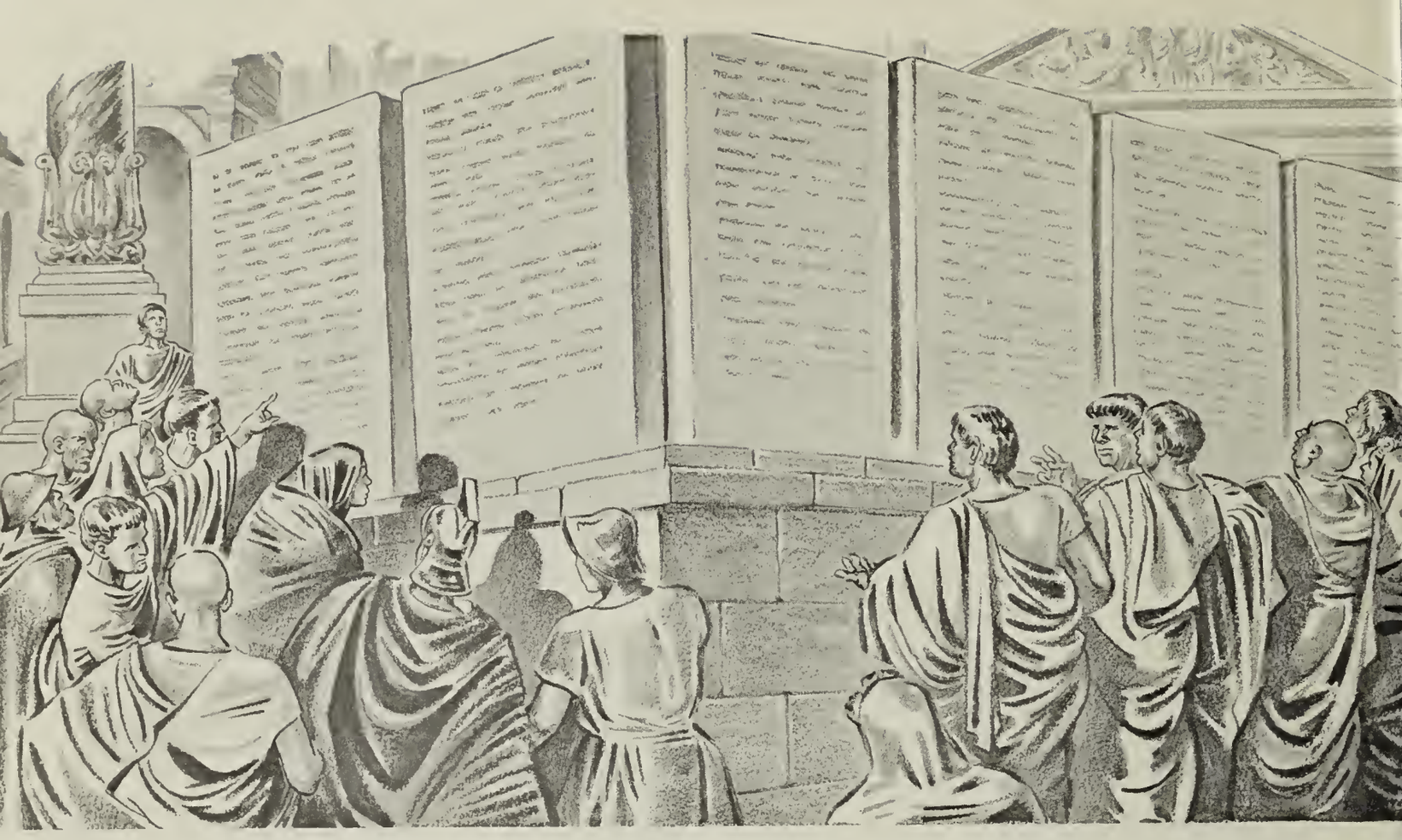
There were two classes of citizens in Rome. Those who belonged to the families who had lived there longest were called *patricians*, which comes from the Latin word meaning "the fathers." The patricians were the important people, the nobles. They held all the public offices, and they alone were allowed to be members of the Senate. The poorer people



whose families had come later were called *plebeians*, which means "the many," or the common people. These people were free citizens, but they were not allowed to hold office or to be senators. They were mostly small farmers, tradesmen, and other workers.

There were many Roman ways of doing things which seemed unfair to the plebeians. There was no written law. The laws were really customs, handed down from old times, and were well understood only by patricians. Families that had come to the region later, or strangers who came to work or to trade, had no way of knowing just what these old laws were. Often a plebeian was punished severely for breaking a law which he knew nothing about. The plebeians and the patricians had many quarrels about the laws.

There was also a great deal of trouble over



debts. The plebeians had to serve in the army, and were away at war so much that their farms were neglected. They could not pay their taxes, and many of them became very poor and fell into debt. The laws about debt were harsh and cruel. Often a man was thrown into prison because he owed money, and he might even be sold into slavery to pay his debts.

Another thing which the plebeians did not like was the fact that the patricians owned all the land. When the Romans conquered a country, part of the land taken by the army was supposed to be divided among the citizens of Rome. But the plebeians did not get a share of this land, even though they fought in the army. It all went to patricians, who already had plenty of their own. These problems about debt and land have caused trouble in many countries, and we shall hear more about them later.

How all Roman citizens became equal before the law. The plebeians had Roman courage and spirit. They demanded that they be treated justly. Once, when a war was threatening, they all marched out of town, and refused to fight for a city which was unfair to them.

"We should have officials of our own," they said. "There should be someone to look after our rights."

The Senate, knowing that Rome could not get along without the plebeians, was forced to give in to their demands. The plebeians were allowed to choose two new officials, who were called *tribunes* of the people. The tribunes were to listen to the troubles of the common people and to see that they were treated fairly. A tribune could not be away from Rome overnight, and the door of his house stood always open, so that anyone could come to him for help, day or night.

One of the first things the tribunes did was to have the laws written down and set up in the Forum, so that everyone could see them and know exactly what they were. These were called the Laws of the Twelve Tables. The Laws described clearly the usual ways of doing

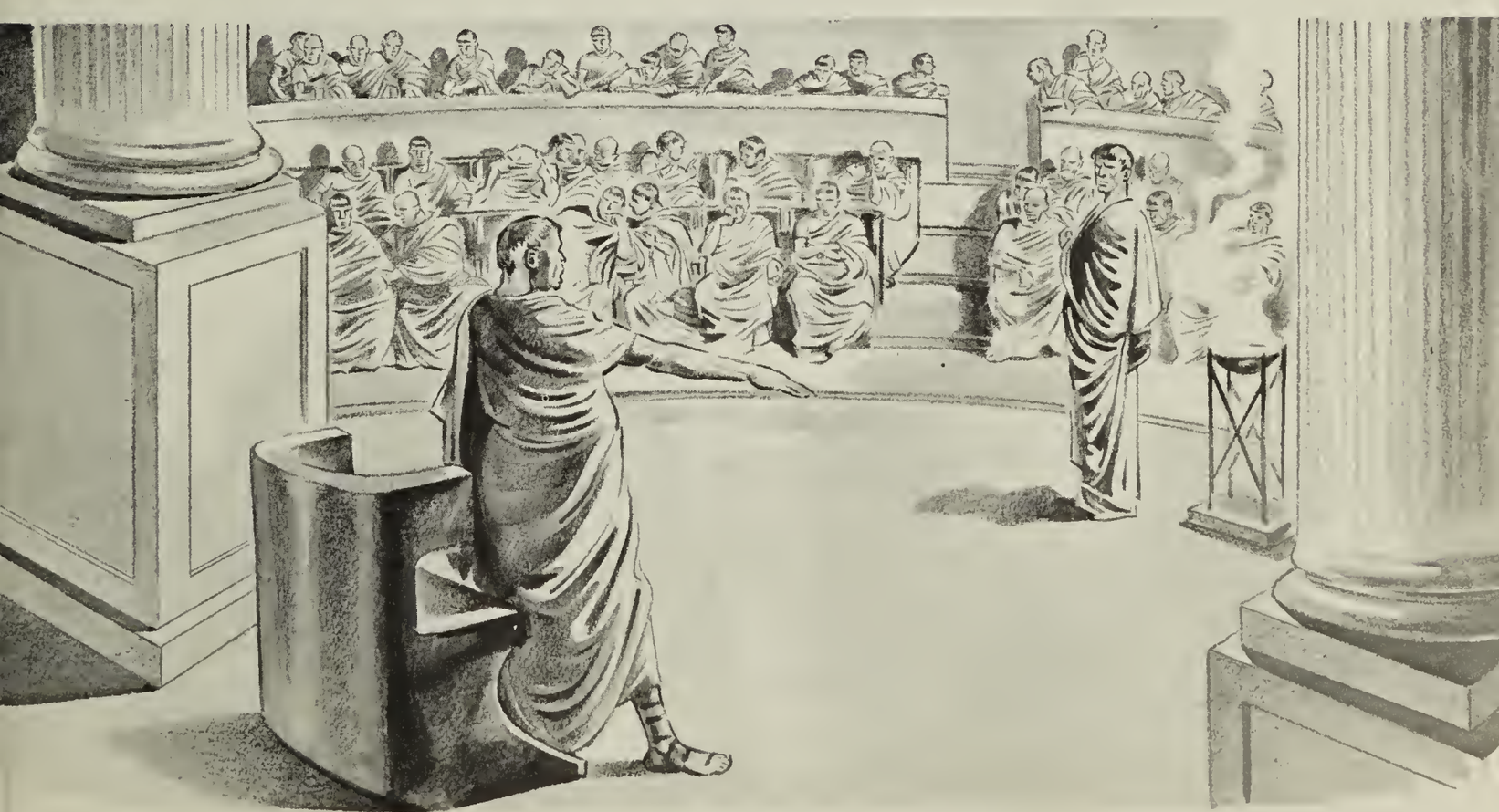
things, and stated the regular punishment for stealing, or for cheating or injuring another. They were many and long, but they were respected and obeyed. All schoolboys had to learn them, just as Titus in our story did.

After a while the tribune was allowed to sit at the door of the Senate while it was meeting. If a plan was proposed which seemed to him unfair to the common people, the tribune could call out "Veto!" which means "I forbid!" Then the plan did not become law. This is where we get our word *veto*. The President of the United States and the governors of most of our states have power to veto a plan for a law which they disapprove.

Slowly the plebeians won more rights. They were allowed to choose men to represent them, that is, to act for them, in a voting assembly of their own, just as the senators acted for the patricians. This voting assembly was allowed to make laws. After two hundred years had passed, the plebeians had equal rights with the patricians. They could hold office in the Roman government. Finally a law was passed that one of the consuls had to be a plebeian. Patrician and plebeian alike were Roman citizens, and Roman citizens were all declared to be equal before the law.

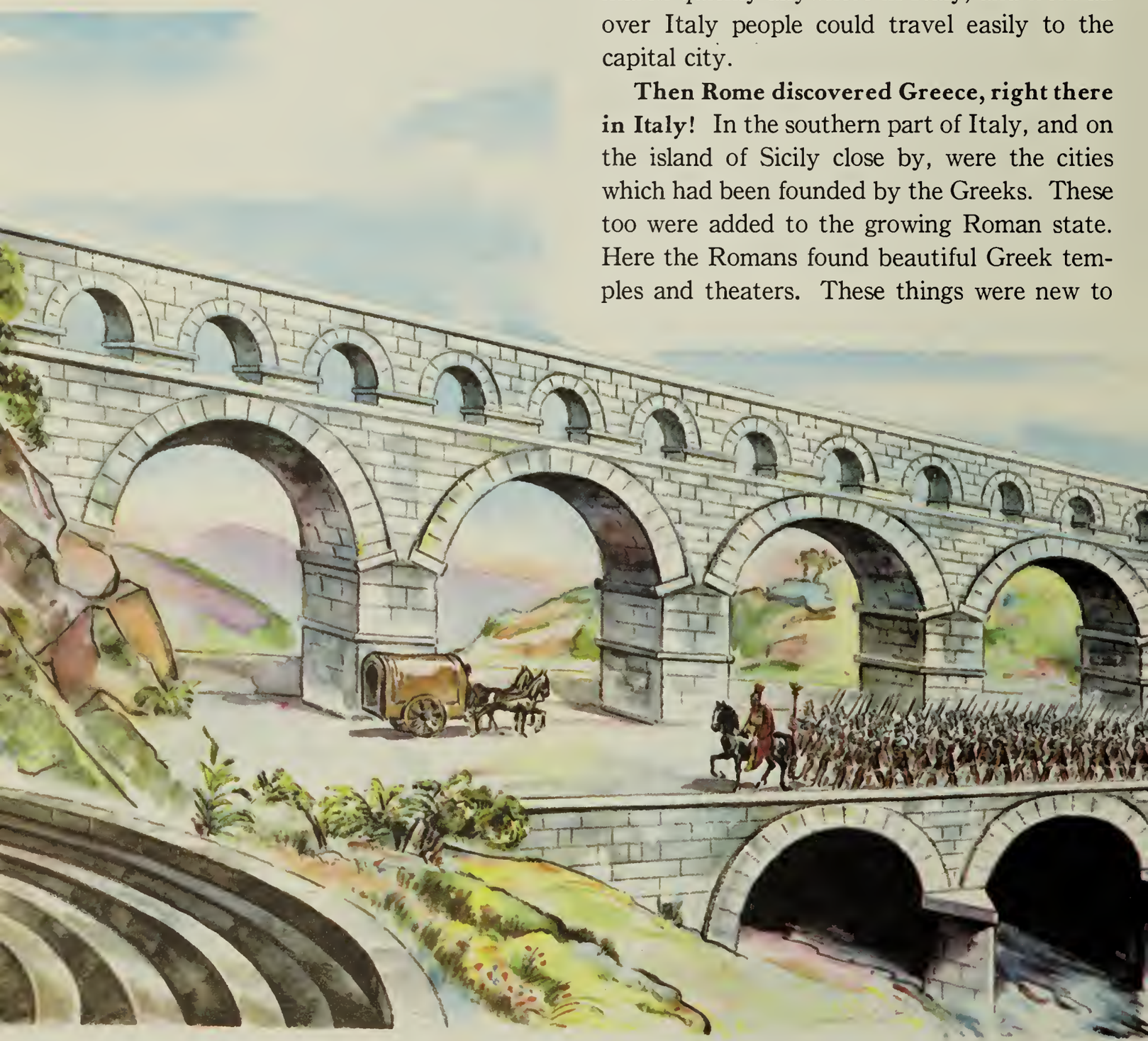
Sometimes there was disagreement still. Debts and land still caused trouble. And often, despite the new laws, the rich senators still held the real power. But these are hard problems for every nation, even today.

Most Romans understood one important thing: Laws must be fair to everyone. People will readily obey laws that are just. But it is not easy to make fair laws; this can be done only when men co-operate. They must talk problems over, listen to every side of the case, think out what is just and right. Even when a law is made and passed the trouble is not over. It must be enforced, that is, people must be made to obey it. Disputes or quarrels may arise about what it means. If there is a great deal of trouble, it may have to be changed for a law which will work better. All these things are part of learning to govern. These were things the Romans learned, and when Roman power was extended to other countries the Romans took these lessons with them.



Roman rule spread first through Italy. While the Romans were working out their own government, their armies were on the march. The Roman soldiers conquered other cities of Italy, one by one, and made them a part of the Roman state. Some of the conquered people were given full rights as Roman citizens, some of them only part of those rights. They were allowed to keep their own government and way of life under the higher power of Rome. If the conquered states quarreled with each other, the Roman Senate interfered, settled the dispute, and brought peace. Often the conquered peoples began to think of themselves as Romans and were proud of their Roman citizenship. Good hard roads were built from every part of Italy to Rome. Stone bridges arched rivers and streams. The Roman armies could march quickly anywhere in Italy, and from all over Italy people could travel easily to the capital city.

Then Rome discovered Greece, right there in Italy! In the southern part of Italy, and on the island of Sicily close by, were the cities which had been founded by the Greeks. These too were added to the growing Roman state. Here the Romans found beautiful Greek temples and theaters. These things were new to



them. The Romans had been a stern, severe people, living a very simple life. Now they saw how much joy beautiful things could add to life. The Romans copied Greek vases and statues and buildings and made Greek art their own. Sometimes they added new ideas, such as the domes they built on some of their temples and the arches they used to support their aqueducts. Aqueducts were stone troughs which brought water from the hills to the cities. The Romans had more government buildings than the Greeks, and they constructed such useful things as the aqueducts and bridges we have mentioned. But Roman art continued to copy Greek art.

The Romans also began to study Greek literature. They read Greek poetry and philosophy, enjoyed Greek drama, and thought and talked about the ideas of Greek thinkers. They learned about the Greek gods, and what they represented. Up until this time the Romans had worshiped their family gods, the Lares and Penates, guardian spirits of the hearth and fields. The Roman king or consul had sacrificed to Vesta, goddess of the hearth of Rome. Now the Romans added to their own worship the gods of the Greeks, giving them new Roman names. This was the way Greece began to conquer Rome, not by armies but by ideas. Greek culture became the possession and the pride of the Roman people.



The strongest rival of Rome was Carthage. Find it on your map on page 20, on the coast of Africa, just across a narrow strip of sea from Sicily. Carthage, you remember, had been settled by the Phoenicians, and this colony had become a rich and powerful trading city. Her ships sailed the length of the Mediterranean, and she had trading ports on the islands of Corsica and Sardinia, near the coast of Italy. Find these islands, and the coast of Spain to the west. Spain at that time was still a wild country where barbarian tribes lived, but here too Carthage had trading ports. She had also ruled some of the cities in Sicily, which Rome had now conquered.

The rulers of Rome felt that a strong Carthage was a threat to Roman power. The Roman Senate decided that Carthage must be conquered and destroyed. The Romans therefore built ships, hundreds of them, and fought Carthage by land and by sea. Three different wars were waged between Rome and Carthage. The fighting went on for more than one hundred years. At last the people of Carthage were conquered, and were forced to sign a treaty and become dependent on Rome. They had to give up their fleet of warships and make heavy payments of money. Then the city of Carthage was destroyed. Rome sent soldiers into Spain, and kept generals in command there. By this time Rome ruled all the western half of the Great Sea.

The Roman armies turned next toward the East. In the years that followed, they conquered Macedonia, and gradually all Greece was taken under Roman rule, then Asia Minor,



Syria, Palestine, and Egypt. Little by little, all the lands of the eastern Mediterranean came to belong to Rome. The conquered countries were called Roman *provinces*. The people of these provinces had to pay taxes to Rome. The Roman Senate sent a governor to each province, and put legions of soldiers there to keep order. A legion was a division of an army. Wherever Roman legions went, Roman government and civilization went too.

The Romans were proud of their victories. Whenever a victorious general returned to Rome after making a conquest, there was a great celebration. The general brought back with him from the conquered country rich and beautiful things, shining armor, statues of bronze or marble, bright silks and jewels, gold and silver. Through the shouting crowds went the procession of triumph. First marched the senators, in their white, purple-bordered togas. Then came trumpeters, then chariots and carts heaped high with captured treasure. Then came prisoners of war, perhaps even the ruler of the conquered country, marching sadly before their conqueror. Last, the conqueror himself rode proudly in his chariot. On his head was a wreath. Musicians played before him. All along the way cheering people watched the procession, shouting the praise of the general. Often a statue of the gen-



eral was erected, or a handsome stone arch carved with his deeds.

Gradually changes came to Rome. The people enjoyed the celebrations. They wanted to hear about the fighting, and they wanted to *see* fighting. They had always liked public games, chariot races, and contests of strength and skill. Now these games became bloody and cruel. Captives brought home from the wars were made to fight each other, for the people to watch. These fights took place in the arena, the space in the center of a large open-air theater. Sometimes the captives fought with trained soldiers called gladiators. Wild animals, too, were brought from other countries for these games, to fight with each other and with the gladiators.

Each general tried to arrange bigger and more splendid games. He wanted the praise and the support of the people. He wanted them to admire him and to vote for him as consul. For more than one hundred years there was jealousy and rivalry between the generals and the leaders of Rome. They tried to seize the power from each other, and often gathered armies and fought each other for the *imperium*, the "power to rule." The strongest general was usually elected consul. The common citizens lost interest in good government. A small group of men gained all the power.



The Roman Empire at its greatest extent

Things went badly for the common people. Thousands of captives were brought to Rome and sold as slaves. The rich farmers bought slaves to till their land, and grew richer selling grain and meat to the government for the army. But it was very hard for a poor man with little land. Often he returned from the war to find that times had changed and he could no longer make a living on his few acres. Poor farmers, with their families, went by the thousands to Rome hoping to find work. The great city was thronged with hungry people who could find no work. Food from the public storehouses had to be given to large numbers of idle people, who had no decent homes and nothing useful to do. These idle people became dissatisfied and unhappy. Some turned to begging or stealing. Many of them were ready to follow any leader who would give them food and exciting celebrations. In this way many ambitious, dishonest men became powerful in Rome.

Julius Caesar has been called the greatest Roman of all. Julius Caesar was a young general, as strong and clear-sighted as the Romans of old. He belonged to one of the wealthy

old patrician families of Rome, and was given a fine education. While still a young man he saw that the Roman Republic had changed, and that the Senate, which in the past had ruled so well, was no longer able to govern the great empire which Rome had conquered. Caesar decided that a strong ruler was needed, and began to prepare himself to be that ruler.

The first thing was to become a successful military leader, for the Roman people by now were used to being ruled by a general. Caesar looked to the north, beyond the Alps, where lay the land of Gaul. Gaul covered all that we now call Switzerland, France, and Belgium. Look at the map of the Roman Empire on page 66 and see how far this country stretches. Since the East already belonged to Rome, Caesar decided to conquer the Gauls to the north, and make their country a part of the Roman Empire. The Gauls were tall, strong people, still half-barbarian. There were many tribes of them, but Caesar was a daring and skillful general. Wherever he led his soldiers he conquered, and wherever he conquered, he set up Roman government. In what is now France his soldiers built hard Roman roads, so that the army could march quickly from one place to another. He governed the conquered country according to the laws of Rome. Roman legions even crossed the narrow sea into Britain. Caesar spent nine years in Gaul, and later wrote the story of his war against the Gauls. If you study Latin in high school you will probably read it.

When Caesar returned to Rome he was welcomed as a great general. He had some bitter enemies, for the leaders of Rome and the Senate turned against him. But his soldiers and the people of Rome loved and admired him, and he was given great power as ruler.

The governors in some of the eastern provinces refused to obey his wishes. Caesar was determined to have orderly government, under his own control, in all parts of the Empire. He therefore set forth with his army through the East, and defeated his foes or drove them into hiding. He said he wished peace and order wherever Rome ruled.

Julius Caesar was a sensible ruler in peace as well as in war. When he had conquered

Roman soldiers building a road in Gaul





his enemies he studied the old problems of Rome and tried to find a solution. He freed those who were in prison for debt, declaring that they no longer owed anything and were free to begin life over again. He saw to it that the Senate made new and better laws about debt. He tried to help the poor to find work. He ordered those who owned land and used slaves to hire some freemen as well. He thought of a way to help the poor farmers who had no land.

"Move out into the provinces, the new, less crowded regions belonging to Rome," he told them. "There is land for you in plenty. The government will help you to get there and will give you land."

Caesar also made changes in the provinces. He saw to it that the governors did not burden the people by extra taxes. He spent the tax money on fine roads, bridges, and buildings in all parts of the Roman world. He gave citizenship to conquered peoples outside Italy. He wished all the lands Rome ruled to be like one great country, and all their people to have the same rights and the same respect for Roman laws and Roman ways.

Some of the people of Rome wanted to make him king, but Caesar refused. "Rome is a republic," he said. He was elected to all the highest offices, and was chosen consul again and again. Caesar had gained so much support from his army followers and other people that none of the senators could stop his rise to power. Finally he was made dictator, not for six months only, but "for life." This was a bad plan, even for as good a ruler as Julius Caesar, since it put all the power of the Roman state in his hands. It was a bad example for the future. Rome was no longer a republic.

Rome killed her greatest leader! Powerful men always have enemies. There were men who were sure that Julius Caesar had too much power, and they planned to kill him. Caesar was told of this, but he was unafraid.

"It is better to die once," he said, "than to live always in fear of death."

One day as he entered the Senate he was

surrounded and stabbed to death. He had spent most of his life leading conquering armies, and had had only about one year of peaceful rule. The Roman world grieved at his death. The people soon forgot how he had taken all the power to himself. They remembered only his courage and strength, his kindness and wisdom. They said that he was greater than a man. They even began to worship him as one of the gods.

The Roman Empire

How Rome became an empire. When one country extends its government over other countries, you may remember, it is called an empire. The word *empire* comes from the Roman word *imperium*, or ruling power. The city-state of Rome had become an empire extending over many different countries and peoples. Look at the map on page 66 and see how much of the world belonged to the Roman Empire: all the countries of the Mediterranean world, from the Euphrates River in the east to Spain at the western end of the Great Sea. Southward it reached into the sandy deserts of Africa. Northward it reached to the Danube River and the Rhine, and in the northwest it extended through Gaul and across the sea into Britain.

Julius Caesar wished his grandnephew, Octavian, to rule after him. But Octavian was only eighteen years old when Julius Caesar was killed. He too wished to hold all the power of Rome, but he had a hard time for the next thirteen years. He had first to overcome all the other men who wished to hold the imperial power. Finally Octavian defeated the last of his rivals and came home in triumph to Rome. This was in the year 27 B.C. The Romans hailed him as *imperator*. This was a title given to victorious generals, and had at first meant "commander of the army." But Octavian wanted no more wars. As a sign of peace, he closed the doors of the Temple of Janus, which had been open for two hundred years. The Senate gave Octavian the name of Augustus, meaning "honored," and this is the name by which he has been known ever since.





A meeting of the Roman Senate

Like his uncle, Augustus knew how deeply the people loved the old Roman ways. Like his uncle, he really held the power himself, but he was careful not to change the form of government. Rome was still called a republic, and the Senate still met to discuss public affairs. Augustus was elected consul many times, and then was made ruler, or "first citizen," for life. He kept the title *imperator*, and after him all Roman rulers were called imperator, which we call *emperor*. As time went by, the Romans began to worship the emperor as a god.

The reign of Augustus Caesar lasted forty-five years. It has been called the Golden Age of Rome. Like Pericles of Athens, Augustus wanted his capital city to be the most beautiful city in the world, and he set to work to make it so. Beautiful temples, arches, and public buildings rose in the Forum. They were made of marble instead of brick. The city needed a better water supply, and great aqueducts were built.

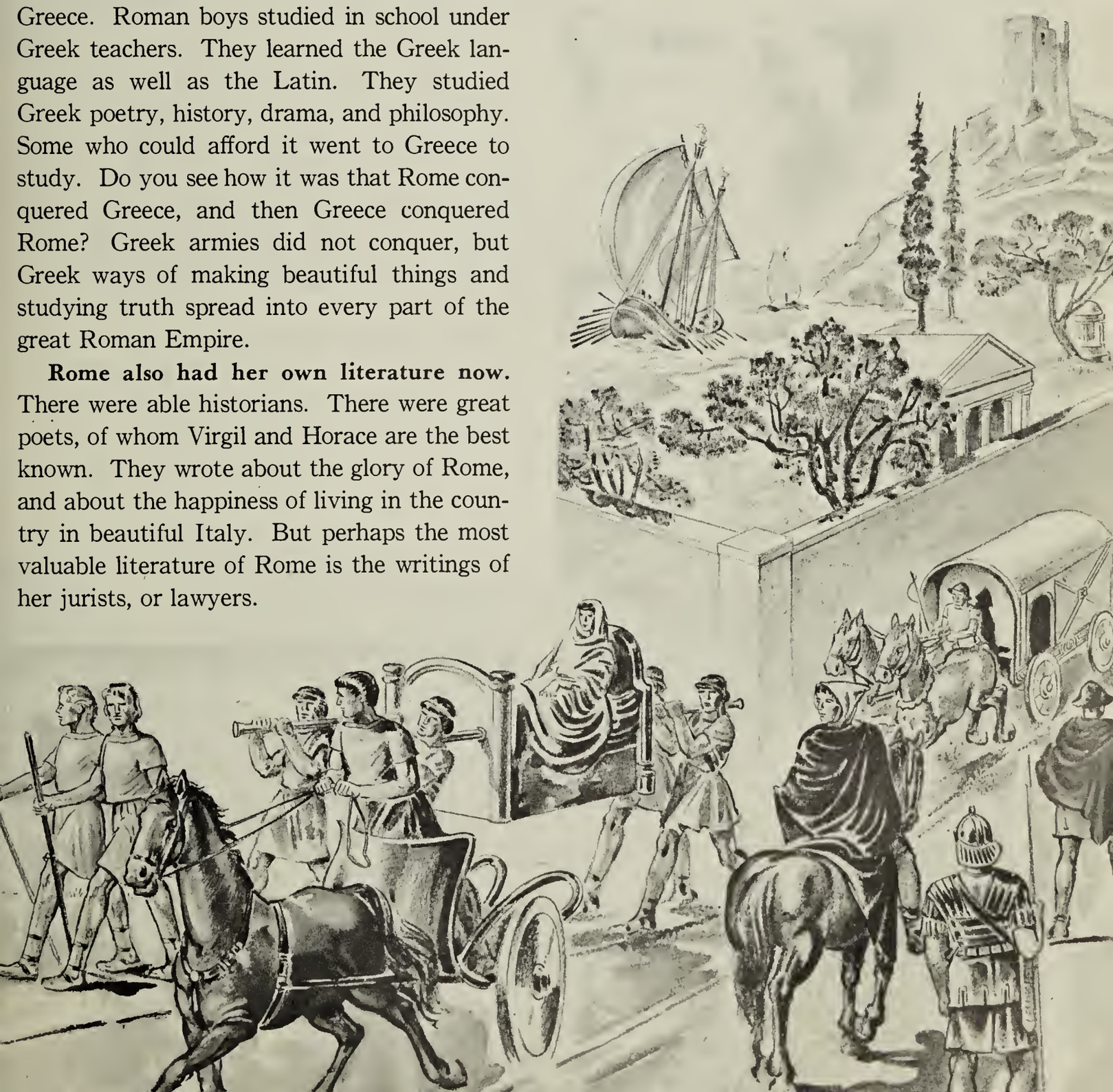
Augustus made the plans of Julius Caesar come true. The "Roman Peace" extended through all the great Empire, and the many lands under the rule of Rome were united. Everywhere bridges and aqueducts, theaters and temples were built. Good roads ran through the farthest provinces. There was a saying in those days, "All roads lead to Rome." People could travel quite easily from one part of this great empire to another.

And travel they did, on foot or on horseback, in coaches or in litters carried by slaves, and on the ships which sailed from port to port in the Mediterranean. Look at the pictures on this page and see how many different ways people traveled. Everywhere the same laws protected them, the same language was spoken, the same weights, measures, and coins were in use.

How Greece conquered the Roman Empire. Into every part of this vast empire, into every country ruled by the laws and government of Rome, went the art and learning of Greece. Roman boys studied in school under Greek teachers. They learned the Greek language as well as the Latin. They studied Greek poetry, history, drama, and philosophy. Some who could afford it went to Greece to study. Do you see how it was that Rome conquered Greece, and then Greece conquered Rome? Greek armies did not conquer, but Greek ways of making beautiful things and studying truth spread into every part of the great Roman Empire.

Rome also had her own literature now. There were able historians. There were great poets, of whom Virgil and Horace are the best known. They wrote about the glory of Rome, and about the happiness of living in the country in beautiful Italy. But perhaps the most valuable literature of Rome is the writings of her jurists, or lawyers.

Roman law had grown, too. The old Laws of the Twelve Tables had been enough for the city of Rome. These made up the city law, or *civil* law. But when different countries came under Roman rule, each conquered country was allowed to keep its own customs and religion, and its local system of law was combined with the Roman law. Officials studied the laws already used in each country, and found a way to use these laws to rule the Empire. Soon Rome had another system of laws called "law of the nations."



Records were kept of law cases. Men known as jurists studied these, and wrote about the laws and what they meant. As the years passed there came to be many books about law, and about the way to make just decisions in disputes. Five hundred years after the time of Augustus, another Roman emperor, called Justinian, had all these laws gathered into a single system, or *code*. This made it easy to study Roman law. The Justinian Code, as it was called, was a great gift to our Western culture. Roman laws helped to make the laws of the United States, as well as those of England, France, and many other countries. You and I may thank the Romans for many of the ideas of order and justice on which our own government is founded.

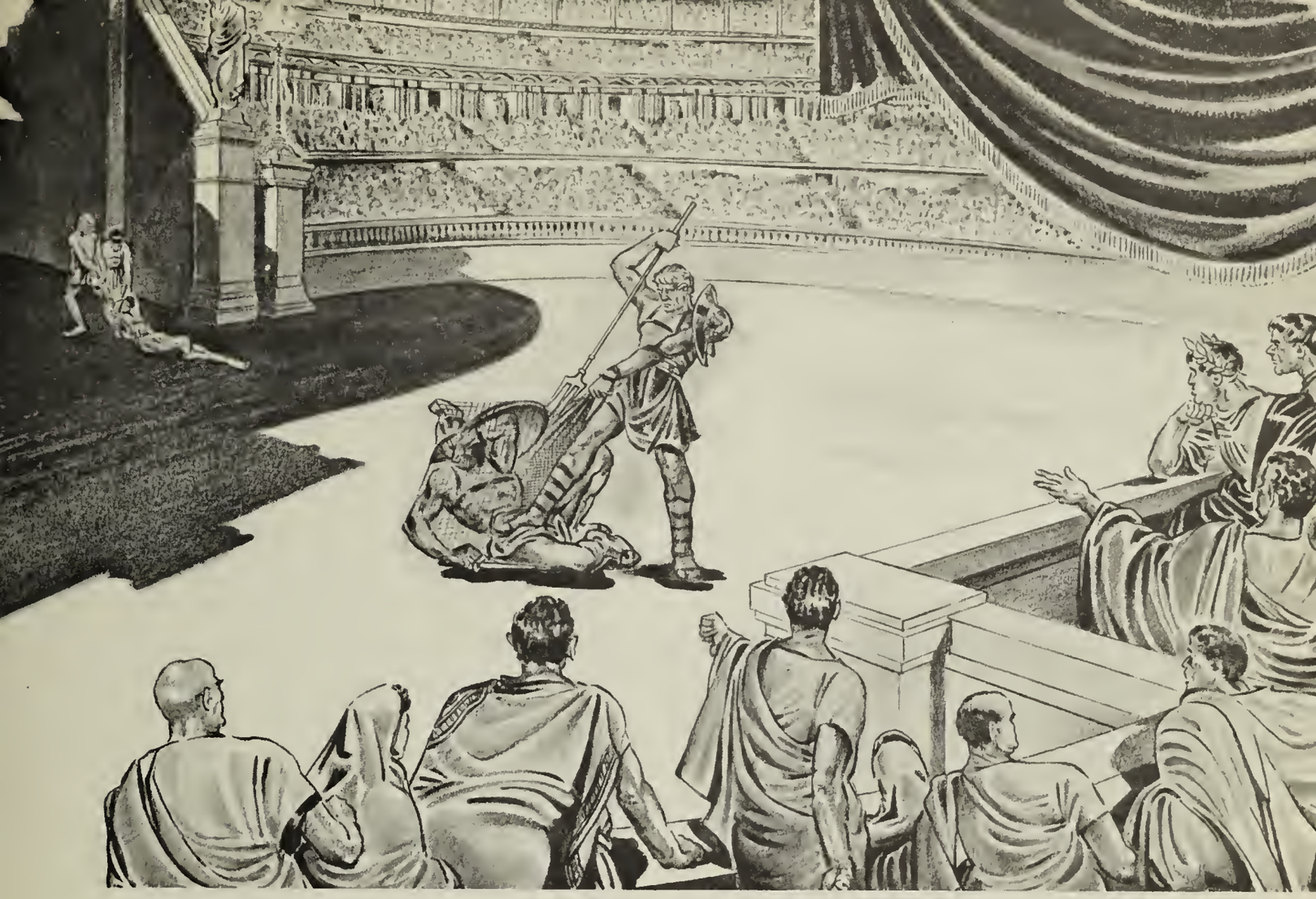
Rome ruled the world. Rome is filled with the ruins of splendid public buildings, for the Romans were excellent builders. Their roads and bridges, their triumphal arches and temples were built to last, and many of them remain today, in many parts of Europe and Asia, to tell the story of Rome's greatness. Her citizens called her "the *Eternal* City," which means "lasting forever." They were sure that so great a city would stand forever, and her leaders would continue to rule the world.

But the Romans had forgotten how to rule themselves. Some of the emperors who reigned after Augustus were strong and wise, but many were brutal tyrants. These men delighted in their power and cared little for the people they ruled. The bad conditions which Julius Caesar, Augustus, and other good emperors had tried to improve, gradually got worse. The poor people became poorer, and there were many of them. Large sections of the city were filled with narrow, filthy streets, in which miserable people lived crowded together, trying to find enough food. Beggars were everywhere, and starvation and sickness were common.

Meanwhile the rich Romans lived in ease and luxury. Roman ships sailed the Mediterranean and brought to Rome all kinds of beautiful things. Wealthy Romans filled their large, fine houses with lovely vases, carvings, tapestries, furniture, and curtains of beautiful material. They had banquets with rich food and wines. They built splendid amusement buildings, where warmed water flowed into marble pools. Here they could bathe and lounge about for hours. They had plenty of slaves to do their work, and many Romans thought only of their own pleasure.

Even Roman leaders cared little about good





government. Those who wished the highest offices did not try to earn this honor by serving their country and making wise laws. Instead they paid for gorgeous shows in the arena, or gave grain to the people. In this way they won the votes of the poor.

"The way to get power in Rome," they used to say, "is to provide bread and public games."

The public games which the people loved were held in great open-air theaters. The most famous of these was called the Colosseum. It was so solidly built that a large part of it is standing today. It was like a huge round bowl, with seats arranged on the sloping sides. It was really the great-great-grandfather of the bowls where football games are played here in America.

Rome's greatness did not last. When the leading citizens of Rome no longer cared about good government and justice for all, Rome's day of power was beginning to come to an end. Even the few good emperors could not hold the Roman Empire together. The bad emperors often did not care what happened so long as no one interfered with their pleasures. Roman leaders quarreled among themselves. Each leader gathered around him an army of men to strengthen his own power. It was the armies rather than the Roman people who raised leaders and emperors to power.

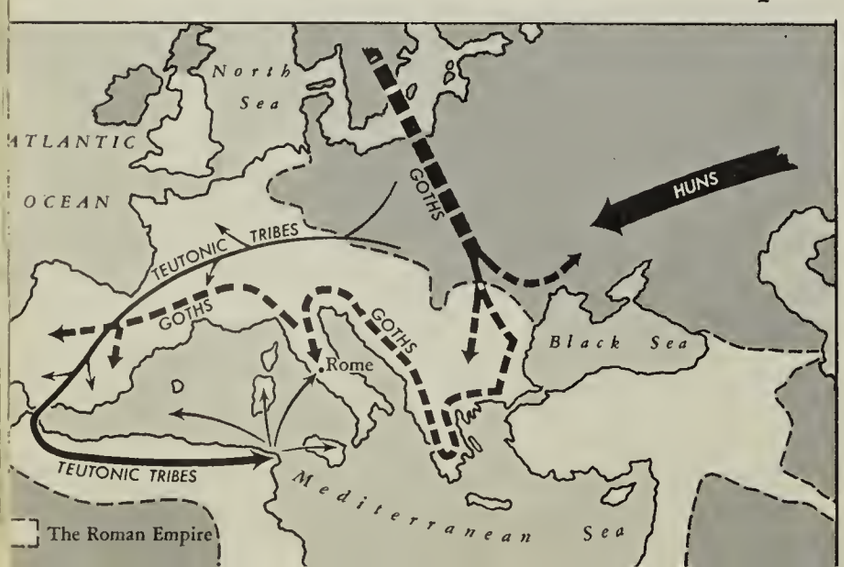
These huge armies had to be kept up by taxes paid by the people. The heavy taxes became such a burden that farmers and workmen could no longer make a living. Less food was raised, fewer buildings were built, and trade began to slow down throughout the Empire. The governors of the different provinces fought among themselves, and many of them no longer paid any attention to the orders of the emperor in Rome.

The End of the Great Roman Empire

The coming of the barbarians. You will recall that many tribes of barbarians migrated in early times into Greece and Italy. Now another great migration was beginning! It began among the Teutonic tribes north and east of the Rhine and the Danube rivers. Find these rivers on the map on page 66. These Teutonic tribes are sometimes called Germanic tribes, or Germans. They were barbarians, like those who had come into Greece and Italy long before. They looked much like the Gauls, farther to the west, whom Caesar conquered and turned into Roman citizens. They were large, strong, fair-haired people, used to rough, rude ways, and fond of war. Here and there they began to cross the borders, and push their way into the Roman Empire, looking for a new home. Sometimes friendly groups were allowed to cross the Rhine or the Danube and settle on vacant Roman lands. But in many spots bands of warlike Teutons looked eagerly toward the pleasant lands of the Empire, and helped themselves to those lands.

The borders of the Empire were defended at important points by sturdy Roman legions. In peaceful times not many soldiers were needed to keep order. But when trouble came in many places at once, there were not enough defenders. The Roman legions were called back from far provinces, such as Britain, to guard the places nearer Rome.

Barbarian routes into the Roman Empire



A new capital of the Empire. During these troubled times an emperor named Constantine moved the capital of the Roman Empire from Rome to the Greek city of Byzantium. Look on the map on page 66 and find this city, on a point of land between the Mediterranean and the Black Sea. The name of it was changed to Constantinople, which means "Constantine's city." After this there were sometimes two emperors, one ruling the eastern part of the Empire from Constantinople, and one ruling the western part from Rome.

The coming of the Huns. Then something happened which caused the Teutons to come in larger numbers. They were attacked by other barbarians from farther east. These terrible enemies were called Huns. Riding on swift horses, they came in crowds from Asia. On your map on page 66, north of the Caspian Sea, you will find a lowland gap in the mountains. Through this gap the Huns poured into the country of the Teutonic tribes. They robbed and killed and destroyed everything in their way. The Goths, who were the Teutons who lived nearest Italy, crossed into the Roman lands, begging for help against these foes. Roman armies went to the aid of the Goths, and together they drove back the terrible Huns.

But when this was done the Goths were in the Roman Empire to stay, and other Teuton tribes followed. They came from the cold northern forests to find new homes in these pleasant southern lands. Year after year they kept coming, in endless numbers. Rome had grown too weak to stop them. Gradually they pushed on across Greece and Italy. They poured into Gaul, into Spain, even across the sea into Africa. Farms and beautiful country houses, cities and villages, the barbarians took possession of them all. Even Rome, the "eter-



nal city," was not spared. Most of these barbarians did not understand or care for the beautiful things of the Greeks and Romans. Statues, arches, fine vases, and carvings were destroyed. Buildings were allowed to fall into ruin. Valuable writings were scattered and lost.

The great Roman Empire was ended! Many artists, teachers, and wealthy Romans fled to the eastern provinces. This part of the Empire was not invaded. Constantinople, the capital, was not taken. Asia Minor, Syria, and Egypt, at the eastern end of the Mediterranean, held together and kept the name of the Roman Empire. But look once more at the map on page 66 and you will see what a very little part this was of the old Roman Empire. In all the rest of Europe, from Greece westward, these warrior people held the land and changed the life of those who lived there.

What happened to the eastern part of the Roman Empire? The answer to that question belongs to another story. It is a story of other ancient peoples and the share they had in forming our western way of life. It takes us to the eastern end of the Mediterranean Sea, to the little country of Palestine and the desert land of Arabia. This story we are going to read in the next chapter.

Study Questions

1. Why did the barbarians of Italy become civilized later than those of Greece?
2. Who were the patricians and the plebeians?
3. Who were the tribunes, and what were their duties?
4. Why were the Twelve Tables important?
5. What people founded the city of Carthage, and where was it?
6. How long did the wars between Rome and Carthage continue?
7. What other countries did Rome conquer?

8. How were Roman victories celebrated?

9. Where did Julius Caesar win his fame as a general?

10. How did he show his greatness in time of peace?

11. How did the Roman government change during Julius Caesar's time?

12. Who ruled the Roman Empire after Julius Caesar?

13. What was Rome's greatest gift to other countries and later times?

14. What eastern city became capital of the Roman Empire?

15. What brought the great Roman Empire to an end?

A Class Discussion about Government

1. What did the Romans learn during the quarrels between the plebeians and the patricians

2. How did this help them when they conquered other countries?

3. Was it a good idea to allow people of other countries to keep their own religion and their customs?

4: How did the Romans use their tax money?

5. How is tax money used in this country today?

6. How did goods and news travel in the time of Rome?

7. What do we have today, beyond what the Romans had, to make it easy to travel or send messages?

8. Do countries ever have dictators today?

9. Do they help or hurt democracy?

Other Things to Do

1. In order to work well together it is a good idea to organize, that is, have a government. Organize your class into a government. The Romans usually chose two of each kind of official at a time, partly to divide the work, partly to keep one officer from having too much power. Instead of electing a president, vice president, secretary, and treasurer, try choosing two consuls, two historians, and two tax collectors. Let them manage the class exercises for a certain time. Decide what other duties they shall have.

2. Study the government of your town or county. Invite one of the officials to speak to your class. If he accepts, prepare a list of good questions to ask him about the various departments of the local government: police, fire, park, street, school, library, and others. For example: Who hires city workers? How is garbage disposed of? Who owns the street railways? the waterworks?

3. Dramatize a gathering of the Roman Senate. Perhaps you can make a toga for each "senator." Choose people to make speeches. One might be a plebeian complaining about the unfair way the plebeians were treated. Another could be a senator suggesting that they solve this problem by choosing tribunes.

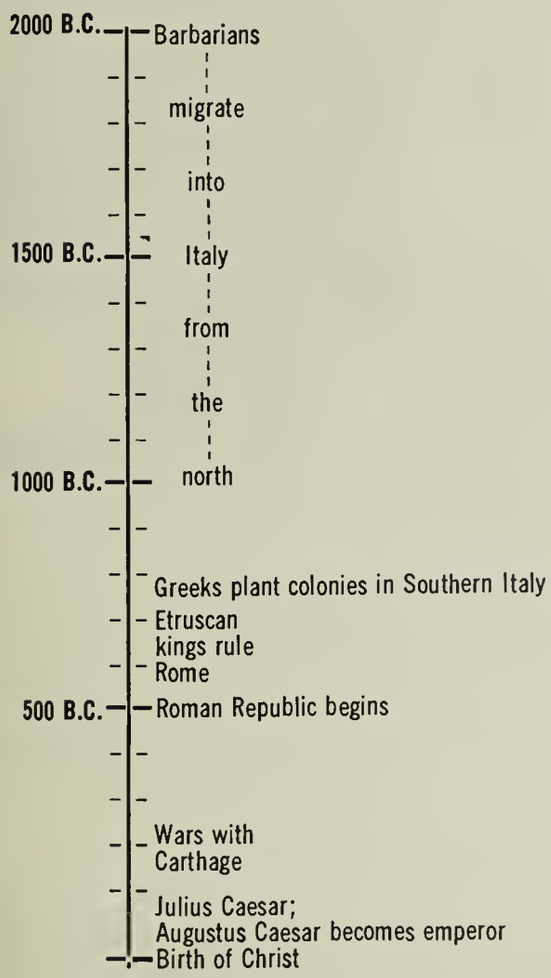
Class Reports

Choose one from the following topics for class reports. Look up the information at the library or ask someone who knows.

1. Julius Caesar changed the Roman calendar. He took the one used by the Egyptians. What change did this make? Where did the following months get their names: January, March, July, August?
2. Some of the rulers of Rome tried to help people with their work and land problems. What does our government do to provide work for those who need it? Does it ever give away free land?
3. How did Roman generals lay out their army camps? What kind of armor and weapons did a Roman soldier use?
4. Read some of the legends of the Romans. Tell them to the class. For example, find out about Romulus and Remus, or the geese that saved Rome, or how Horatius saved Rome. Perhaps the class would enjoy reading Macaulay's "Horatius at the Bridge" together.

Dates and Time Lines

When we study history it is important to remember the order in which events occurred. We remember things in the right order, as you know, by the help of dates. One way to keep things in order is to make a *time line* in your notebook. This is like a memory map in which to place events you read about.



Study the time line for the story of Rome above. It is about four inches long.

1. How many years does each inch represent? 2. What date is at the top of the line? 3. What event is at the bottom of the line?

A single event is written beside the year when it occurred. Wars or migrations which go on for a long time are written so as to fill the whole time they were taking place.

1. When did barbarians begin to migrate into Italy? 2. About how long did this migration continue? 3. About when did the Roman Republic begin? 4. What was happening in Rome before the Republic began?

Most of the events you have read about in this chapter took place in the years from 500 B.C. to the birth of Christ. Perhaps you would like to make a time line showing just this period. You could divide this line into ten fifty-year periods. Your librarian will help find dates of events which you want to put in on your time line.

1. How long will you make the line?
2. What events will you put into it?
3. Could you make such a time line for Greece also?

Can You Define It?

Below are eight words used in this chapter. Copy the numbered list of words in your notebook, writing after each word what it means. Make your definition as short as possible.

1. Tabularium
2. Lictors
3. Consul
4. Dictator
5. Plebeians
6. Tribunes
7. Aqueducts
8. Colosseum

4. Palestine and Arabia: Home of Great Religions



A Story · The Greatest Law

Almost two thousand years ago, in the old city of Jerusalem in the land of Palestine, a boy went hurrying along the principal street leading from the Temple. Simon could not get home fast enough. He had something to tell Rachel, something special. Rachel always listened with interest to the things he told her, even though she was several years older.

After he left the Temple area Simon almost ran down the busy, noisy street. It was late in the afternoon. He decided to go in the back way. The front way would be crowded with shoppers, and his father would be attending to customers. Sometimes important people, priests and rabbis, came to order sandals in the hours toward sunset. Matthew, the sandal-maker, was well known in the street.

Simon opened a little gate in a wall, and slipped down a narrow passage, and through another gate. It was quiet here. There was no sound but the whisper of a little wind in the vine. It was a small court. The stones were mellow with age. The slanting sunlight fell on the flowers Rachel tended so carefully. She was here now, watering them. She stood still with her empty jar, waiting for him.

"Well, I saw him," said Simon joyously.

"Who was it you saw?" asked Rachel, smiling.

"You know. Jesus from Galilee," he said. "The man who rode into the city that day with the crowd around him."

"You did?" said Rachel in surprise. "You must tell us about it. But let's go in now. You are late. Supper is ready, and Father will be tired and hungry."

Simon followed her into the house, talking all the time.

"Eli took us, Reuben and me. There was a big crowd there, important men and officials, and a lot of strangers from other places. Jerusalem is full of strangers during Passover week. I am glad I am fourteen this year and can go where I want to. There are so many things to see. He was not at all the way I thought he would be. And they asked him questions."

"Who did?" Rachel laughed. "Quiet down, Simon. You can't tell it straight. Go and spread down the mat and light the lamps. The meal is ready and I hear Father coming. Wait until he has eaten. Then you can tell all about it."

Simon lit the lamps and placed them on their stands. He spread the mat on the floor, and Rachel brought the big wooden bowls of food. Then she turned to greet her father.

Matthew the sandal-maker was not a tall man, but he was erect and slender, with a full black beard. His dark eyes looked lovingly at his daughter, and he caressed her hair lightly.

"Child, you look more like your mother every day," he said, sighing.

Rachel touched his cheek with her hand.

"You are tired, Father. Your supper is ready."

She brought a little pitcher of water and poured it over his hands as he held them over a basin at one side of the room. Then she did the same for Simon, and he in turn poured the water for her hands. Then they recited a blessing for the washing of hands. They sat down on little rugs around the mat, Matthew spoke the evening prayer of thanksgiving, and they began to eat.

"Simon says that the city is crowded with people," said Rachel in her quiet voice.

"It is always crowded at the time of the Feast," said her father. "The shop has been



filled with strangers. I have more orders for sandals than I can fill. I have sent Jonah for another workman."

As Matthew grew rested he began to talk of things that had happened during the day. A man from the coast had brought his whole family into the shop to be measured for sandals. He had bought from Matthew last year and had found no other sandals that wore so well. A rich man from Egypt had ordered a beautiful and expensive pair as a present for his wife.

While he was talking Simon kept silent. Sometimes his eyes met those of Rachel and they twinkled at him. Rachel remembered that he had a story to tell. When the meal was over, Rachel cleared away the dishes, and Simon rolled up the mat. Matthew seated himself between the lamps, and took up some work with fine leather strips. Often he spent an hour in the evening doing careful work on some very special sandals.



"How do things go at school, my son?" he asked.

Rachel brought cushions to place on each side of her father. Then she settled down beside him with her needlework. She nodded at Simon.

"Simon had an adventure today," she said. "He is going to tell us about it."

"Eli took us with him to see Jesus, the teacher from Galilee," began Simon.

Matthew looked up sharply.

"The man who entered the city followed by that rough crowd?" he asked.

"It wasn't a rough crowd, Father," said Rachel. "Reuben and Mary saw them pass. There were women and children there. They were singing."

"Even so, Rachel," said her father, "I told you last night of the strange disturbance in the Temple Court. This man seems to act in a very unusual way. The priests are not sure what his purpose is. They do not want any trouble with the government. Rome is too strong for us and more trouble would only mean heavier taxes."

"This man wouldn't make trouble, Father," said Simon.

"How do you know what he would do, Simon?"

"Well, I heard him, Father," replied the boy. "While I was standing right there, beside Eli, someone asked him if we should pay taxes to Caesar."

Matthew laid down his work and looked at Simon.

"And what did he say?"

"He asked someone to give him a coin, and then he showed us the face of Caesar on the coin. And he said, 'Render unto Caesar the things which are Caesar's, and unto God the things that are God's.' "

"He said that?" said Matthew.

"Just that way," said Simon. "You could



hear people whispering that nobody could catch *him*. Eli asked him a question too. He asked him what was the chief commandment."

Matthew had taken up his work again. His skillful hands braided and twisted the soft leather. But Simon knew that he was listening.

"And the teacher answered Eli's question, Father. He said that the first commandment was this: 'Thou shalt love the Lord thy God with all thy heart, and with all thy soul, and with all thy mind.' And, Father, he said there was a second commandment: 'Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself.' "

Matthew looked troubled. "I do not like to have you trailing around after strangers," he said. "I am surprised that Eli should take his pupils there. What does Eli think of this man?"

"Well, you know we have almost finished learning the Law, Reuben and I. I mean, the first five books of Moses. Eli said he had heard that this Jesus knew a great deal about the Law. When he listened to him in the Temple yesterday, he was surprised at the way he taught.

"We begin next on the teachings of the rabbis," went on Simon. "Eli thought it would be a good idea for us to see and hear this teacher. Eli says that sometimes a great prophet comes from some small village, and begins his work just the way this man is doing. Eli thought his answer about the greatest commandment was very wise. We talked about it, and Eli showed us that all the laws of Moses really depend on these two. Because if a man does love God, and really loves his neighbor, he is bound to obey the other commandments, about not killing or stealing or lying."

Matthew shook his head. "I do not know," he said. "I have followed the Law all my life. But I am not a scribe. If Eli Bar-Jonah says so, it may be all right. He is a highly respected scribe, as his father was before him. See that you attend to your studies, Simon, so that my son will be known as a scribe who is upright and wise in the Law. That is my prayer for you."

Simon said nothing. But Rachel saw that his eyes were shining.

Home of Great Religions

The events in the story you have just read took place in Palestine, a very small country at the eastern end of the Mediterranean Sea. It is a part of the Fertile Crescent. Turn back to the map on page 66 and find Palestine, not far north of the Isthmus of Suez. Now take a look at the whole region. Notice the country of Syria, north of Palestine, and farther north, to the west, the hilly peninsula of Asia Minor, and to the east the low plains of the "land between the rivers." Southeast of Palestine stretches the barren desert of Arabia, and across the isthmus lies the ancient country of Egypt. You will find Palestine on the map on page 20 also, for it was part of the old world before the time of the Roman Empire.

This part of the world was important, you remember, because our civilization began here, and from here it spread to the east and to the west. It was important for another reason, as well, for here developed three of the great religions of the world. They, too, spread both eastward and westward. Palestine is the home of the Hebrew, or Jewish, religion and the Christian religion. These two religions both call Palestine the Holy Land and Jerusalem the Holy City. Nearby Arabia is the birthplace of the Moslem religion. The Moslems, too, look on Palestine, and especially Jerusalem, as holy.

What do we mean by religion? We mean the belief which people have about the unseen power called God, and the way in which they worship Him. It has to do with ideas of what is right and what is wrong, and it is closely tied up with the way people act. Therefore, if we want to know and understand the people of other countries and times, we must know something about their religion. Suppose we find out something about the Hebrew people, and the great influence their religious beliefs have had in the world.

The Hebrews Were the First to Worship One God

Who were the Hebrew people? In very early times there were tribes of nomad people, who lived in the lands of the Fertile Crescent, or wandered through the deserts of that region. Among these nomads was Abraham who settled with his family in the land now called Palestine. He believed that there was one great God who cared for him and his people. The history of Abraham and his descendants was not written down. It was told by fathers to their children, like the history of the early Greeks and Romans. There were stories of strong and good



men, poems and songs, stirring accounts of battle, and tales of adventure. We call such unwritten history *tradition*. But in later times the stories and poems were gathered and written down, and these writings, or *scriptures*, form the Hebrew Bible. The Hebrew Bible is the great gift of the ancient Hebrews to our world. Many of the scriptures of this Bible are also part of the Old Testament of the Christian Bible. They tell about what kind of people the Hebrews were, how they lived, and what they thought.

The Old Testament tells how Abraham's descendants went to Egypt to escape a famine. For a time they were well treated, but later they became slaves to the Egyptians. Then, after years of hardship, their great leader Moses led them out of Egypt back to Palestine. Look at the land of Palestine on the map on this page, and see what a hilly land it is. Notice the River Jordan, flowing from the Sea of Galilee southward into the Dead Sea. The Dead Sea is below sea level, and has no outlet, and so its waters are very salty. In the highlands of the south the Jews took the city of Jerusalem, and made it their capital. Here they built their great Temple.



Palestine and its position in the Mediterranean world

The Hebrews believed there was only one God. The Hebrews were in some ways different from the peoples around them. The greatest difference was that the Hebrews did not worship many gods, as did the people of Egypt on one side and Mesopotamia on the other. They worshiped only one God. They believed that he was a God of justice, and that he wanted his people to lead good lives. Their great leader Moses gave them the laws which we call the Ten Commandments. These laws became the foundation on which the Hebrew nation was built.

Much of the time the Hebrews were ruled by kings. But sometimes their real leaders were great religious teachers called prophets. The prophets taught that a good and honest life is better than power or riches, more pleasing to God. They taught that the first duty of man is to obey God and to trust him, or have faith in him. The teaching of these men is found in the Old Testament, along with the stories and poems of the Hebrew people.

The priests of the Temple were very important men. They kept the books of the Law, which had been handed down from early days. Some of the laws were rules for worship, given to the people many years before, and the priests insisted that they be obeyed exactly. There were laws about the right way to offer sacrifice, and to celebrate a feast. There were rules about keeping the Sabbath, or day of



rest. There were laws about the right kind of food to eat and the way to prepare it, and about many other things in daily life. The Jews felt it was important to obey all these laws, especially since the Law was both government and religion to them.

So many and so important were these laws that certain men spent their time helping people to understand and follow them. These men were called scribes. Today we go to a lawyer to ask about the laws. We ask a doctor about our health and a banker about money. In old Jerusalem it was the scribes who told people about all these things. The scribes were also teachers. Many a bright boy, like Simon in our story, was sent to study with a well-known scribe, so that he too might become a scribe.

Palestine was in an unprotected location. The inset map on page 83 shows you that not far south was the Isthmus of Suez, the ancient "bridge" between the continents. Palestine was right in the path of conquering armies going in either direction. Again and again the Jews were conquered and their capital city, Jerusalem, was destroyed. Thousands of Jews fled to other countries. Some were taken away to be the slaves of the conquerors. But wherever the Jews went they kept their own religion, with its laws and customs. Always some remained, or returned, and rebuilt Jerusalem, and kept the little nation alive.

Palestine was one of the countries through which Alexander the Great led his army. Wherever that conquering army passed, many people began to use the Greek language and follow Greek customs. Most of the old cities of Asia Minor, Syria, and Egypt took up Greek ways of living and thinking. Greek theaters, schools, and athletic games sprang up in many places. You can see from the map on page 45 that Palestine was surrounded by these countries, many of which were accepting Greek culture. Yet Palestine remained Jewish, and the Jews kept their customs and their faith.

Neighboring rulers often tried to seize the land of Palestine. It was a stormy time for the Jews. They fought for their freedom, and won it, but they could not keep it. The Roman Empire was spreading, and Roman soldiers were sent to take Palestine. The country was made a protected kingdom of the great Roman Empire, with a king by the name of Herod. This king tried to please the Jews by rebuilding their Temple in a gorgeous way and filling

their city with beautiful buildings. But he was cruel and selfish, and Palestine remained a restless, uneasy spot in the Roman Empire during the reign of Augustus.

After the time of Augustus the Romans destroyed Jerusalem. Many of the Jews were carried off as slaves. In the long years that followed, the Jews were scattered throughout the world. Wherever they went, they carried their faith and their civilization with them. In that way they contributed to the life of the countries where they lived.

It was no wonder, however, that many of them dreamed of the time when they could again have a nation of their own, a dream that has now come true.

The Rise and Spread of Christianity

In troubled Palestine, while Augustus was Emperor, Jesus was born. This event became so important to the western nations that from it we number our calendar years. B.C. means "before Christ." A.D. stands for two Latin words, *anno domini*, meaning "in the year of our Lord," or "after the birth of Christ."

Jesus became a great teacher. Jesus lived in a little village called Nazareth, in Galilee, the northern part of Palestine. As a youth he studied the Jewish Law and the teachings of the prophets. According to the custom, any man who learned this Jewish wisdom could become a teacher. A teacher who was wise and lovable always attracted students, who were called his disciples. As Jesus grew older he became a teacher. He gathered about him disciples, who talked with him and went with him from village to village as he taught men, women, and children.



It was the custom in many countries for a teacher to gather about him a group of pupils. Do you remember Socrates and Plato and Aristotle in Athens? These little groups of followers, listening to the words of thoughtful teachers, were the beginnings of our colleges and universities of today. The story of the life and teachings of Jesus is told in the Christian Bible, in the four books of the New Testament which are called the Gospels.

Jesus taught the importance of brotherly love. Day after day, Jesus went among the people, helping the poor and the unhappy. He was so wise and so understanding that great crowds followed him, listening to his words. He read and explained the Scripture lessons in the temples, and people were often surprised at his new ideas about the old teachings.

Jesus told people to treat others just as they would like to be treated themselves. He said, "Whatsoever you would that men should do to you, do you even so to them." This has been called the Golden Rule. We have seen from the story of Simon and Eli his teacher that Jesus taught all men to love their neighbors. He taught that all men are brothers, and that they should all love each other. But even this, Jesus said, was not enough. "Love your enemies, too," he said, "and do good to those who harm you."

Now the old Hebrew prophets had said that some day a leader would come to save the people, and they called this leader the Messiah. The Jews had often been conquered and enslaved, and they looked forward to a better time. Many of them were hoping for a powerful general, who would lead them against their enemies and set up a strong kingdom. Jesus often spoke of "the kingdom of heaven." Some of the Jewish people believed that Jesus might be this conqueror who would free them from Roman rule.

This disturbed a small group of men in Palestine. They were afraid that Jesus and his followers might make trouble with the Roman emperor and his governor in Palestine. Some of them also felt that Jesus was teaching in a way which did not follow the Hebrew Law.

These men became worried about his power over the people. They finally seized him and brought him before Pilate, the Roman governor. Jesus was tried, condemned, and put to death.

The work of Jesus went on. The disciples and his other followers were at first heartbroken. But after a few days these men and women no longer grieved and mourned. They told their friends that Jesus had risen from the dead and was still alive. They felt that his spirit was still with them, and they were filled with joy. They wanted to carry to all the world his message that God is a loving father and that all men are brothers. They wanted their lives, as well as their words, to teach the way of love and good will. Others saw their work and followed their example. The Christian religion began to spread.

It brought new hope to people everywhere. The first Christians were not the rich and the well-to-do, but the poor. Their lives were hard, and they were told that there was another life after death. They had been badly treated by the rich and powerful, and now they learned that love was more important than riches and power. They learned that there was one God who was both powerful and merciful, and who loved all people as a father loves his children.

Groups, or churches, of those who believed in Jesus and wanted to follow his teachings were set up. The Christian religion spread from one to another of the great cities of Asia Minor and Greece, then into Italy and to Rome itself. From there it travelled into the distant Roman provinces in Africa, Spain, and Gaul.

The early Christians were persecuted. Those who did not believe in Jesus felt that they must stop this new religion. They began to arrest the disciples and their followers. Some they beat, some they put in prison, and some they stoned to death. This cruelty is called *persecution.*

You may remember that the Roman government did not persecute anyone for his religion. Men and women were allowed to believe and worship as they pleased. But the Christians were different. They said that God was greater than the emperor, and they refused to kneel before the statues of the emperor. They would not serve in the Roman army, because these early Christians believed that it was wrong to fight and kill. The Roman rulers felt that the Christians were not loyal Roman subjects, and the emperor and his soldiers hunted them out and persecuted them. When the Christians met in secret to worship God, the Romans suspected that they were plotting an uprising against the Empire.

For all these reasons the Roman government at first tried to stop the spread of Christianity. Christians were arrested, and sometimes taken with other prisoners into the arena to fight with wild beasts. But the Christian prisoners met death without fear; often with songs on their lips.

The Christian religion captures the Empire. The courage and faith of these Christians made others wonder. Wealthy and educated men and women began to accept this

Hundreds of early Christians met death in the Roman Colosseum



new religion, which made people joyous even in trouble.

Gradually the Roman emperors stopped persecuting the Christians and allowed them to worship freely. The Emperor Constantine himself became a Christian in 312 A.D. After that, Christianity became the religion of the Roman Empire. Less than a hundred years later another emperor ordered that Christianity should be the only religion allowed in any part of the Roman Empire. All other religions were forbidden.

The Church and the Roman Empire. As Christianity spread over the Empire, every city of any size had its Christian church. Each important church was headed by an official called a *bishop*. The bishops were the leaders in the church government; and in time the bishop of Rome became the head of the Church. Later he was given the title of *Pope*, meaning "father."

The Emperor Constantine, you remember, moved the capital of the Roman Empire from Rome to Constantinople. When this happened the church at Constantinople became a rival of the church at Rome. This was the beginning of a division in the Christian Church. The bishops of the two churches often disagreed, and finally the church separated into two parts. The eastern church, with its center at Constantinople, became the Orthodox Eastern Church. The western church, with its center at Rome, became the Roman Catholic Church.

Christianity was still spreading in Europe. Teachers of the Christian religion went even across the borders of the Empire into the lands of the barbarians. Many of the barbarians accepted the new teaching. These brave teachers were sent by the Church at Rome. The Roman Catholic Church was the leader of all the churches in the western part of the Empire. This was how it happened that the Roman Church remained the center of the Christian religion in western Europe, even after the Roman Empire ended.

Many of the barbarians who came into the Roman Empire in the great migration had also already accepted Christianity. Therefore, amid all the destruction that followed, the churches and their leaders often escaped unharmed.

Christianity continued to spread, and became the religion of most people in western Europe.

The Prophet of Arabia

The eastern part of the Roman Empire remained. Constantinople was still the capital of the provinces of Asia Minor, Syria, and Egypt, which had been the eastern part of the great empire. This eastern part was still called the Roman Empire, but it was not really Roman any longer. Here Greek instead of Latin became the chief language. The Orthodox Eastern Church had its center in Constantinople, and the head of this church was the leader of Christianity in the East.

The lands of Persia and the East now had a much richer culture than the lands of the barbarians in western Europe. The Roman emperors in Constantinople admired and imitated the Persian and eastern rulers, and the eastern way of life. The Eastern Roman emperors ruled with absolute power, expecting their subjects to obey without question. They had jeweled crowns and thrones, rich garments, and brilliant courts. Beautiful buildings were built and art and learning were encouraged.



And then, about a hundred years after the fall of Rome, a new power arose to make war on the emperors of Constantinople and take away more lands. The new power had its beginning in Arabia. Let us see how this happened.

It is a lonely land, this desert of Arabia. Much of it is bleak *steppe* land. Steppes are high, rainless, treeless plains, broken and rough. Here nomad tribes roamed about seeking pasture for their flocks. Much of the country is sand, many miles of blowing sand, across which move slow camel caravans carrying goods from place to place. Here and there, in the southwest, near the Red Sea, are small fertile spots, with date groves and a few towns. One of these towns is Medina. Another important town is Mecca, where the caravans stop and unload their burdens for the nearby Red Sea port. Locate these towns on the map on page 93.

About the year 600 there lived in Mecca an Arab called Mohammed. He was a quiet man, who spent much time alone. Mohammed talked with many Jews and Christians, for traders from Palestine often traveled across Arabia. He knew the religious beliefs of these traders and had read their Bibles. The Arabs worshiped the gods of their tribe, of which they made rude images. Many of these images were kept in a little temple at Mecca. Among the precious things in this temple was a black stone, which the Arabs believed had fallen from heaven.

There came a time when Mohammed began to preach to those who would listen. He declared that these images and stones were not gods. He said that there is only one God, an unseen God of goodness and justice. The Arabian name for God is Allah. Mohammed

believed and taught that Allah wants no images or priests. He wants only the prayers and worship of faithful followers, who live good lives. Mohammed taught his listeners that all men are brothers. He said they must be kind to their slaves, and generous to all men, giving to those who were in need. He told them to kneel and pray five times a day, touching their foreheads to the earth.

During the last ten years of his life Mohammed lived and taught in Medina. The religion he taught is called *Islam*, which means obedience to God. Sometimes it is called Mohammedanism, from the name of Mohammed. Mohammed taught his followers that God had sent many prophets or teachers to men. He told them to honor and study the words of the Hebrew teachers like Moses and Jesus. But to his followers, Mohammed himself was the first and chief prophet, and they received his messages as the words of God. "There is no God but God, and Mohammed is His prophet," they said, and they began to teach others their new faith.

Mohammed soon had thousands of followers. Before many years had passed he was honored as teacher and leader throughout Arabia, and Medina was the capital of the growing state of Islam. After the death of Mohammed, his sayings were collected into a book called the *Koran*. This became the law of his followers, who called themselves *Moslems*,





meaning "the faithful." They believed that they must teach all men what Mohammed had taught them. They were a warlike people, and those who would not accept Islam had to pay tribute as a conquered people, and allow themselves to be ruled by "the faithful." The people who paid tribute were heavily taxed under this foreign rule, but they were allowed by the Moslems to follow any religion they wanted to.

How the Moslems built an empire. The leaders who followed Mohammed were called *caliphs*. The caliph was not only the leader of religion and of government, but also military commander of the Moslem armies. Arab fighters, riding on swift horses, swept out of the Arabian desert on all sides. In a few years they had conquered most of Persia, and had spread their rule and their religion far into Turkestan, north of Persia. Find this region on the map of the Moslem empire on page 93. It is far to the north. They conquered the nearby regions also—Syria, Palestine, and Egypt—countries which had been part of the old Roman Empire of the East. Moslem temples, called *mosques*, were built in all the large cities. The Roman emperors in Constantinople had very little empire left now, only Asia Minor and Greece, and a region of barbarian peoples north of Greece and west of the Black Sea. But Constantinople itself remained a rich and strong city, and a great center of learning and trade.

The Moslem empire kept on spreading. The capital was moved from Medina, in Arabia, to the city of Damascus, in Syria. Armies were sent through Egypt, and westward across the northern part of Africa. This is desert country, much like Arabia. Conquering as they went, the Arabs kept straight on until they crossed the sea into the peninsula of Spain. Here they conquered and took the land away from a Teutonic people called the West Goths. Spain became a Moslem land. The Moslem empire now stretched from east to west, all the way along the African coast of the Mediterranean Sea and into part of Europe.

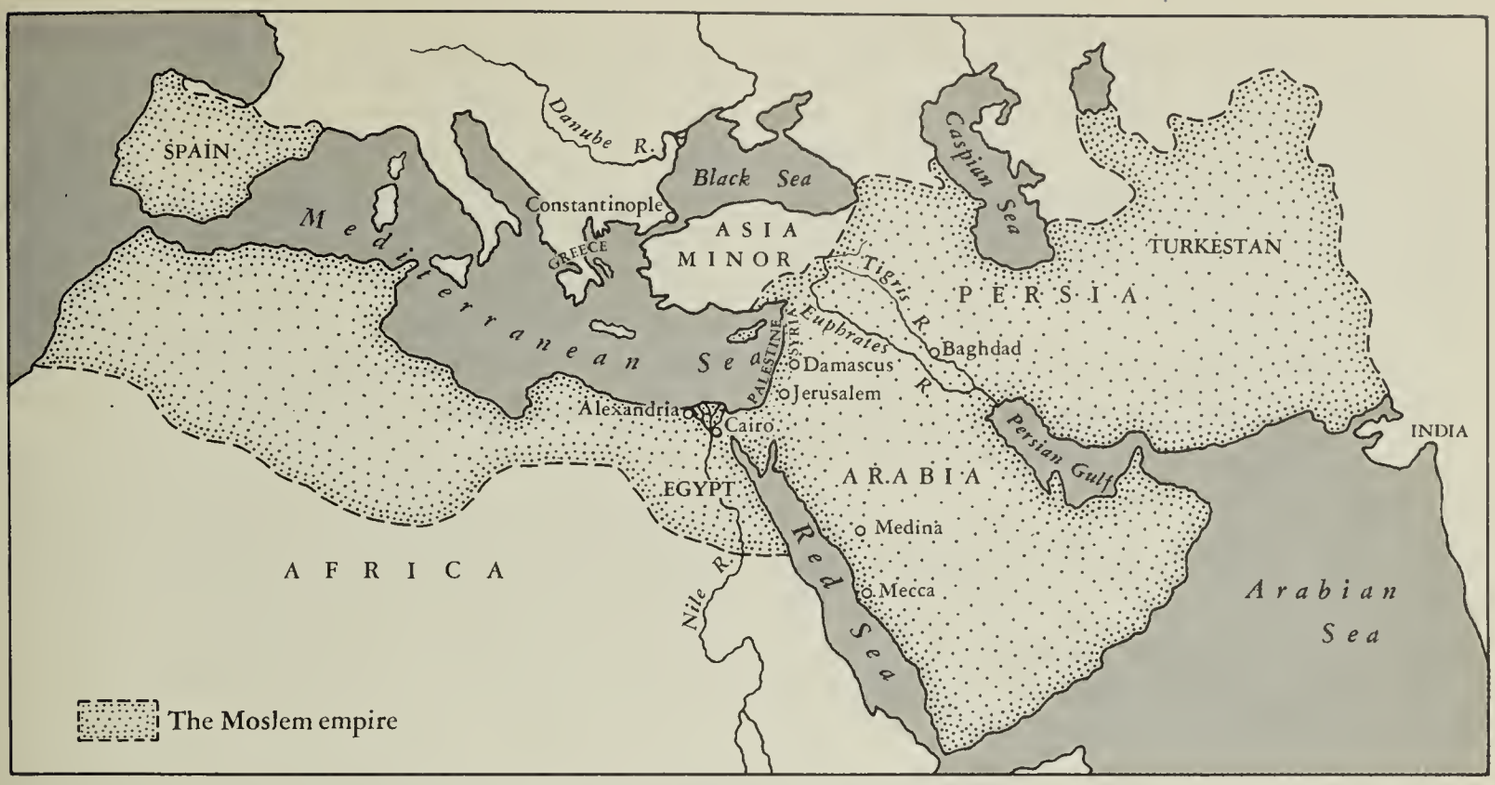


Now in the east came changes in the leadership of the Moslem empire. Strong Persian officials seized the power. One Persian caliph changed the capital from Damascus, in Syria, to Baghdad on the Tigris River. This was the most splendid and powerful period of the Moslem empire. We might call it the Golden Age. Instead of the simple life of the early chiefs, the Persian caliph and his people liked luxury and splendor. If you have read stories from the *Arabian Nights*, you will remember the grand palaces and the glittering court life of the caliph, Harun-al-Rashid, and his nobles. Harun-al-Rashid ruled around 800 A.D.

The Arabs developed a rich civilization. The Arabs themselves were not at first an educated people. But in the countries of Syria, Persia, and Egypt there were many men of learning. The caliphs praised and rewarded men of learning. They started schools so that their young men might study. You remember how the art and learning of Greece, as well as the Latin language, were spread abroad by the conquering Romans. Something very much like that happened in the Moslem lands. The books of Greek philosophers were translated into the Arabic language, and so also were the works of learned men of Persia and India. Excellent books of history, poetry, science, and fiction were written.

Wherever the Moslem armies went and Moslem officials ruled, the Moslem religion gradually became the religion of the people, and the Arabic language was read and spoken.





The Moslem empire at its greatest extent

In this way, science and literature in the Arabic language spread through the great Moslem empire from Persia westward all the way to Spain. Alexandria, in Egypt, became a center of learning once more. Especially important was knowledge of medicine and arithmetic, of which Europe at that time knew little. Our figures, the "Arabic" numerals, came from India. The Moslems learned them, and used them in their books written in Arabic.

These and many other ideas came from eastern lands to the western cities of the Moslems, and then from Spain into Europe. Study the map above and see how the Moslem empire, with its rich culture, spread around the southern shore of the Mediterranean Sea to Spain. Here it came face to face with the peoples of Europe, with their rude culture and the Christian religion. Another chapter will tell us what was happening there in western Europe, where the barbarian peoples from beyond the Alps and the Danube had taken the lands of the Roman Empire.

Study Questions

1. How were the Hebrews different from the peoples around them?
2. Why was the location of Palestine dangerous for the people living there?
3. Augustus ruled Rome from 31 B.C. to 14 A.D. What do these initials, B.C. and A.D., mean?
4. What can you tell about Jesus' teaching of brotherly love?
5. How did the teachings of Jesus spread?
6. Did persecution stop the spread of Christianity? Why or why not?
7. What finally put an end to the persecutions?
8. Why did the Christian Church break into two divisions? What were they called?
9. In what country did Mohammed live, and what did he teach?
10. What was his religion called? How did it spread?
11. How far did the Moslem Empire extend?
12. What was left of the Eastern Roman Empire?

Some Questions to Think About

The Hebrews believed that God wanted them to obey certain laws, called the Ten Commandments. These Commandments are part of the Jewish and Christian religions. Three of them say:

You shall not kill.
You shall not steal.
You shall not bear false witness. (This means "you shall not lie when questioned by a judge or court of law.")

1. Can people live and work together, safely and happily, without obeying these laws? 2. Do they help people to get food and shelter? 3. What happens when people pay no attention to these laws?

Let's Study a Hebrew Poem

The greatest art of the Hebrews was their poetry. The poetry in the Old Testament is as grand as any poetry to be found anywhere. The true beauty of a poem depends on the idea which it contains, the rhythm of the language, and the word pictures which make the idea real to us.

Have someone write on the blackboard the Twenty-third Psalm. This is a Hebrew poem about God's care. The class may enjoy reading it aloud together like a verse-speaking choir. Pick out the word pictures the poet has used to give us a feeling of being loved and cared for.

Many poets have enjoyed taking the words of this psalm, and making them into an English poem with rhymes and measured lines. Then it may be set to music easily. On page 95 you will find such a song. See if you think the poet has kept the word pictures. Let the class sing it together.

Other Things to Do

1. Appoint someone to ask the librarian for a copy of the *Arabian Nights*. Perhaps your teacher can help you to choose a story to read aloud, or tell to the class, or dramatize.

2. A group may be interested in preparing an exhibit of pictures of Mohammedan buildings and art. Travel magazines, such as the *National Geographic*, have articles and pictures of countries which have these buildings, countries such as Spain, Turkey, or Egypt.

3. Ask someone to help you to find an example from the *Bible* of one of the parables of Jesus. Read it to the class and see if you can explain what he was trying to teach by it.

4. Make a simple time line for Palestine and the countries around it, showing what great power ruled them. Put a dividing line near the center and mark it the Birth of Christ. Mark off spaces and call them 100 years each. Ask your teacher to help you with the dates.

Who?

Copy in your notebook the sentences below, filling in the right name.

1. _ _?_ _ was the first Roman emperor to accept Christianity.
2. _ _?_ _ taught his followers to kneel and pray five times a day.
3. _ _?_ _ ruled about 800 A.D., during the Golden Age of the Moslem empire.
4. _ _?_ _ said, "Love your enemies, do good to those who harm you."

Where?

Copy in your notebook the sentences below, completing each of them with the name of one of the following cities: Rome, Baghdad, Mecca, Jerusalem, Medina, Constantinople.

1. The trial and death of Jesus took place at _ _?_ _.
2. The bishop of _ _?_ _ became the head of the Roman Catholic Church.
3. The Orthodox Eastern Church had its center at _ _?_ _.
4. Mohammed was born in _ _?_ _.
5. The first Moslem capital was _ _?_ _.
6. The later Moslem capital and the most splendid court of the caliphs was at _ _?_ _.

The Lord Is My Shepherd

Thomas Koschat





5. A Hilltop View of the Ancient World

We stand on a hilltop. In the Prologue we made a plan to travel through the centuries and find out where our American freedom and culture began and how it grew. Following a plan of this kind is like going exploring. When we take a journey through woods and hills where we have never been before, we can easily lose our way. It is sometimes a good plan to climb a hill and look across the country. Then we can trace the path over which we have come, and see what the country ahead of us is like. We can do something much like this in our study of history. Suppose we stop for a moment or two, and take a hilltop view of the countries we have been studying.

When we take a backward look we talk very often about centuries. A century, as you know, is one hundred years. Sometimes we forget that a hundred years is a very long time. Hardly ever does a person live so long. But a man can often tell his grandchildren how things were sixty or seventy-five years ago. It was just the same in the days of Greece and Rome. We may look from our hilltop and see the Roman legions conquering one country after another until Rome was a great empire. But nobody in Rome lived through that whole time. Each person could know only the one war that was going on in his own time. He could not look beyond those years and see what the result would be. In somewhat the same way we see new things when we look back over a period we have been studying, things that were not so easy to see while we studied. This is the value of a *review*, which really means "another look."

On pages 98 and 99 there is a chart. It will help us to look back over the way we have come. Here are bits of the stories of Greece and Italy, Palestine and Arabia, in the order in which they happened. On the left-hand side of each page is the story of Italy, and on the right-hand side is the story of Greece. At the top of each column is the date, 2000 B.C., when both stories begin. Each rectangle contains the story of 500 years, which is a long, long time. Of course not much of a story can be put into so few words, so these words are just to remind you of the rest of the story, which you have already read. Read the top rectangle on page 98 first, then the rectangle below it, and so on. Then you will know some of the most important events that were happening in Italy and Greece at the same time.

Do you see certain places where a sentence runs right across from one story into the other? You will discover, when you read it, that a sentence like this tells something which belongs to both stories, such as the Greeks building trading cities in the southern part of Italy. Things like this tie the two stories together. They help us to remember that these are not really two separate stories after all, but parts of one great story, the story of civilization.

Why we study the past. These stories of Italy and Greece, of Arabia and Palestine, are interesting and important to us. We study them to find out what these people who lived so long ago gave to us in America, and to the world in which we live. They had to solve many problems, and by solving these problems they made their lives better. We discover that the freedom of which we are so proud, the ideals which we call American, had some of their beginnings in Athens and Rome and Palestine. There are many kinds of freedom, as we know, and there is much to learn about getting and keeping freedom. Suppose we look once more at these early peoples, and see what they learned and handed down to the people who came after them, to us and to all other freedom-loving peoples.

The Greeks had more than one kind of freedom. No one is free to do anything else until he makes sure of food, shelter, and safety. The land of the Greeks had a mild climate, and food and shelter were not hard to get. The Greeks, therefore, had a chance to seek other desirable things, and they found the opportunity to create and enjoy beauty. They filled their cities with beautiful buildings and statues which all could share.

The Greeks had freedom of speech. They loved to ask questions about the great things of life, justice and happiness and goodness. Trying to answer such questions as these was good training for their minds, just as athletic games trained their bodies. The Greeks learned to think clearly and to put their thoughts into clear language. No wonder we still read the books of their famous teachers, Plato and Aristotle.

Also the Greeks had a great deal of freedom in government. All the freemen of Athens could vote in the assembly, and each had his turn at being a public official. Athens was the first democracy, a city-state ruled by the people.

The Romans believed in law and order. Like every early people, the Romans had to make sure first of food, shelter, and safety. It was the desire for safety that finally united the people of Italy under the leadership of Rome, the strongest state. When the Romans had time to think about making life better, they did not think first of beauty, nor about the meaning of life and truth. They were more interested in justice and orderly government. They were not willing to obey unjust laws. They wished to have a part in their own government. The quarrels between

Looking Back from the Hilltop at the History of the Ancient World

	ITALY	GREECE
2000 B.C.	BARBARIAN TRIBES BEGAN THEIR MIGRATION SOUTHWARD FROM THE PLAINS OF CENTRAL EUROPE	
	They came into Italy, roamed over the western plains, chose the homes they wanted, settled their boundaries by fighting.	They came into Greece, roamed through the hills and valleys, fought for the places they wanted, or moved south to the islands of the Aegean and to the shores of Asia Minor.
1500 B.C.	The Latin tribes located near the Tiber River.	These were the times of which legends and poems of Greece tell, the Trojan War and hero adventures. Greeks learned better ways of living from older countries of the East.
1000 B.C.	Etruscans founded kingdom north of the Tiber River.	Greeks built better cities. They became seamen and traders. They planted many colonies.
	IN SICILY AND SOUTHERN ITALY THE GREEKS BUILT TRADING CITIES WHICH GREW RICH	
	Etruscan kings conquered and ruled Rome.	Greeks colonized coast of Asia Minor and Black Sea. Greek states grew strong. Athens developed democracy.
	Romans drove out kings, made Rome a republic.	
500 B.C.		

ITALY	GREECE
500 B.C.	500 B.C.
Romans learned self-government. Laws of Twelve Tables set up in the forum. Citizens were declared equal before the law.	Greeks defeated Persians. Peloponnesian War caused fall of Athens. More wars weakened Greek states. Philip conquered Greece Alexander conquered a vast empire.
Romans conquered Greek cities. They ruled all Italy.	
CIVILIZATION OF GREECE SPREAD THROUGHOUT ANCIENT WORLD	
Rome conquered Carthage and ruled western Mediterranean.	
ROMAN EMPIRE REACHED EASTWARD, TOOK EGYPT, SYRIA, ASIA MINOR, AND GREECE	
Romans lost good government.	
Julius Caesar ruled Empire. Peace restored under rule of Augustus	
BIRTH OF CHRIST	
1 A.D.	1 A.D.
ROMAN EMPIRE WAS STILL STRONG	
CHRISTIANITY SPREAD THROUGH THE EMPIRE CHURCH OF ROME BECAME LEADER OF CHURCHES	
BARBARIANS BEGAN TO CAUSE TROUBLE ALONG THE BORDERS	
CONSTANTINE MOVED CAPITAL FROM ROME TO CONSTANTINOPLE—TWO EMPERORS RULED	
BARBARIANS CROSSED BOUNDARIES AND INVADED THE EMPIRE	
Barbarians conquered Rome. Great Roman Empire in the West collapsed.	
500 A.D.	500 A.D.
Confusion existed under	Mohammed founded Islam.
Barbarian tribes.	
"Dark Ages" began.	Moslems built empire.
	They seized parts of the Eastern Roman Empire.
Charlemagne built empire.	Harun-al-Rashid ruled at capital of Baghdad.

the patricians and the plebeians resulted in the beginning of a system of representative government. This is a special kind of democracy. Instead of meeting to make laws or to vote on actions, the people choose men to represent them. These men make the laws and decide public questions. A democracy with representative government such as this is called a republic. Our own country is a republic, and we follow many of the Roman plans.

The laws of Rome proved so good, and the decisions of the judges were so fair, that we find them today among the laws of our own and many other countries. This is because for hundreds of years young men preparing to become lawyers have studied these laws and decisions, and have taken ideas from them. Many of the words and phrases used in our courts today are the very Latin words used by the Romans long ago. In the same way the men who framed the Constitution of the United States took ideas from the Roman plan of government. Just laws and representative government, these are the gifts of Rome to the western nations.

The belief in one God arose in the desert lands of Arabia and Palestine. The Jews gave to the world the religion of one God. Jesus and his disciples, who were themselves Jews, gave to the world the religion of Christianity, with its belief in brotherhood and love.

We must also remember that the Arabs have contributed to our Western culture. We owe our system of numbers to them, and their science and literature enriched the life of Europe as well as of the East.

We see from our hilltop all these ancient peoples, the Greeks, the Romans, and the Jews, who each gave something of their own to our culture. But through the troubled years which followed the end of the Roman Empire, the knowledge of Roman law and order and of Greek beauty and learning were almost forgotten in Europe. Only the Christian religion remained a strong part of European life. How were the other treasures found again, so that they might be passed on to us? This we shall discover in the following chapters.

Hilltop Questions

1. What three great things did the Greeks gain and pass on to us?
2. What was the special gift of Rome?
3. What came to us from Palestine? from Arabia?
4. What was lost in western Europe when the barbarians captured Rome?

A Hilltop Discussion

People learn new things and gain new and better ways of living by trying hard to solve their own problems.

1. How can we help the people who live after us by working patiently to solve our own problems?
2. If we do solve our problems in the best way possible, will our children still have problems to solve? Why do you think as you do?
3. Do we all, every one of us, have problems to solve? Explain your answer.
4. What are some of the problems each one must solve for himself?
5. What are some problems we must solve together, in the place where we live?
6. What are some of the problems Americans must solve together for our country?
7. Can you think of some of the ways we work to solve such problems?
8. Is there more than one way to solve a problem? Wouldn't it depend on the situation? Give some examples.
9. How does your class solve a problem? Do you talk it over, try each suggestion in turn, all work together, or appoint a committee?

Famous Men of Ancient Times

A. On a piece of paper write the numbers of the questions. Then see if you can choose the right answer to each question from the list below. When your list has been corrected, you might like to write the questions and answers in your notebook.

1. Who ruled the Roman Empire for forty-five peaceful years?
2. Who wrote the poems Greek boys loved to recite?
3. Who was called by the Greeks the Great Questioner?
4. Who spent nine years conquering and governing Gaul?
5. Who was the caliph of Baghdad in the Golden Age of the Moslem Empire?
6. Who visited many countries studying government, and wrote a book called *The Republic*?
7. Who conquered the Greek cities one at a time, and thus united all Greece under his rule?
8. Who was the first Roman Emperor to accept Christianity?
9. Who directed the carving of the great ivory and gold statue of Athena at Athens?
10. Who saw his fleet destroyed by the Greeks from his throne overlooking Salamis Bay?
11. Who was the leader of Athens during her Golden Age?
12. Who conquered Syria, Palestine, Egypt, and Persia, and took Greek ideas wherever he went?
13. Who with his soldiers stopped the Persians at the pass of Thermopylae?
14. Who is often called the first scientist, because he noted and wrote about the habits of birds and animals?

Leonidas	Xerxes	Themistocles
Mohammed	Pericles	Aristotle
Augustus	Julius Caesar	Philip
Socrates	Alexander	Darius
Jesus	Hippocrates	Homer
Plato	Harun-al-Rashid	Herodotus
Phidias	Constantine	

B. In your notebook write the numbered phrases given below. After each phrase write in the matching names from the list above. You may use some names twice if you think they belong in two places.

1. Three Roman emperors
2. Three Greek generals
3. Three Persian rulers
4. Six great teachers
5. Three great conquerors
6. Two famous peacetime rulers
7. One famous poet
8. One famous sculptor
9. Two famous scientists

Skimming

Do you know how to *skim* a chapter? *Skimming* means reading straight along, just as rapidly as possible, to get an idea of what is in the chapter. This is sometimes a useful way to look up material for a report. Skim the pages until you find a paragraph which seems to give the sort of information you want. Then stop and read this part very carefully. Skimming is useful in looking through newspapers or magazines for new facts.

There are several ways to study a new chapter. You can take a few pages at a time, and read them over and over, slowly and carefully. Or you can skim the whole chapter first, to get a general idea of what is in it. After you have skimmed the chapter, and have some idea of what it contains, you can study it. Look over the study questions, and use them to help you. Begin again at the beginning of the chapter and read more carefully, looking for the answer to each question, and trying to find out all you can about the people and places mentioned. Practice trying to read new material very rapidly.

It is often helpful when skimming to have an outline. A skimming outline is just a short list of things you are looking for. If you have such a list you will notice these things more quickly as you read along. One way is to write all suggestions on the blackboard, so that each can make his own list. If the lists are different, so much the better.

Interesting Books about the Countries We Have Studied

BRITTAIN, MARY Z. *Arab Lands.* Holiday House, Inc., New York, 1947. Story of the Arabians from ancient times to the present.

COLUM, PADRAIC. *Children's Homer: The Adventures of Odysseus and the Tale of Troy.* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1925. An arrangement for young people of the stories Homer told.

EMMETT, ELIZABETH. *Land He Loved.* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1940. An adventure story about a nameless, homeless lad who came to America from London, and in one year found name, home, and country.

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Unit Two

Nations of Europe:

the Slow Growth of Freedom



6. The Early Middle Ages: a Time of Disorder



A Story · The Knights Ride Away

It was still dark in the hut when Dickon woke, but his father and brothers were already up. Dickon yawned and sighed, thinking of the long day of work ahead. Then suddenly he remembered. No work today! He leaped from his straw bed in a hurry. Since this was a holiday he did not want to waste a second.

He pushed back his hair and jerked his belt into place. There was no washing or dressing. The clothing Dickon wore was all he had. His tunic of coarse cloth reached from his neck to his knees, and was belted in with a strip of leather around the waist. He wore it day and night.

Dickon was hungry. Usually there was something to eat before going to the fields in the morning, hard dark bread and a piece of cheese. But this morning they would eat nothing here. There would be food at the castle. And such food! Dickon patted his empty stomach with joy at the thought as he hurried out into the gray light of dawn.

The village was awakening. Everywhere shadowy figures came out of the little huts and went in groups along the road. Not often during the year did the peasant folk gather at their lord's castle, only at Christmas or on some special holiday. Today Francis, son of the lord himself, was to be made a knight.

All the men of the village would go. Not women or girls, of course, but all the men, and Dickon was one of them, now that he was twelve years old. This summer he labored in the field along with his brothers, and it was not easy work. But he was glad, because now he could go to the castle and see all that happened.

Dickon's father lifted down the sack of cabbages and carrots. It was their gift to the lord and his son, quite the proper thing to take, his father thought. Grain for the rent, but fresh vegetables from the garden for a special present like this.

Then they were on their way among their neighbors. The sun was up, sparkling on the dew-covered fields. As they passed the church the door opened and a priest came out and joined the villagers. He was thin, and there were deep lines in his face, but some of them were lines of laughter. The peasants spoke to him, taking off their caps. They were fond of Father Barney. Dickon pressed to his side and walked beside him.

"Father Barney," he said, "did the knights —are they still in the church?"

"They are still there," said the priest. "They are not yet knights, you know. They were there all the night through, both Francis and his friend Miles. Many prayers they must say, with their new armor and weapons before them on the altar."



"It must be a grand thing to be a knight," said Dickon.

"It is a grave thing," said the priest, as they trudged along.

"Why is it a grave thing to be a knight?" asked Dickon. "What *is* a grave thing?"

"A grave thing is a serious, or important, thing," replied Father Barney. "It is always an important thing to make a promise. Every knight makes solemn promises. He must promise to live a good, pure life. He must promise to be brave and strong, to fight for the Church and for the right. He must promise to defend the weak and helpless, to protect women, and to serve God always. The knights defend us all from those who would do us harm."

"I wish I could be a knight," said Dickon.

"You have your duty also," said Father Barney. "You and your father, the sturdy plowman, and his strong sons. It is your work to raise the good grain for food, not only for yourselves, but for your lord and his brave knights. Some of the villagers must pasture the sheep, so that there may be wool for clothing. Others milk the cows and make the cheese, or tend the pigs for food. Each has his task and serves God in his own place."

"Yes," said Dickon.

He felt very hungry. He hoped there would be plenty to eat. So many people had gathered at the great gate that they had to wait their turn to cross the drawbridge. Dickon looked down into the moat. It was very deep, but the water in it was low, because the stream that fed it was small in the heat of summer.

Inside the castle gate the courtyard was a busy, noisy place. At one side were the great stalls and storerooms. Here the serfs were bringing their gifts of vegetables or grain or skins or woven cloth for their lord, the Duke. Beyond was the arched door leading into the kitchens. Warm air puffed through this door, bringing a tempting odor of roasting meats and spice.

In another place older boys and men stood in a crowd about the horses. Dickon could hear the stamping of their hoofs and the ring of steel. He squeezed into the crowd and worked his way to the front. "One, two—" he counted, "—eight, nine, ten." Dickon was proud that he could count so many horses. There were sixteen of them, all great, strong beasts. A horse had to be strong to carry a knight in battle armor, with shield and weapons.

Suddenly there was the sound of a trumpet. On the balconies and stairs of the castle richly dressed people appeared, the noble guests of the Duke. Through the great oak gate from the drawbridge came the other priest, Father Ambrose, with two young men.

Dickon knew them both; he had often seen them riding out to the hunt. One was Francis, son of the Duke, the other was his friend Miles, son of one of the Duke's rich vassals. Miles had spent years at the castle with Francis. Together they had taken their training to be knights. First, they had been pages together, learning their lessons in good manners, serving the ladies of the castle. Then they had been squires together, learning to fight and hunt on horseback. Now they were ready to be knights.

The Duke came from the castle, and the people cheered. Two boys came up carrying armor. They were the young squires of the new knights. Every knight had a squire to serve him. The Duke embraced his son, and laid his hand kindly on Miles's shoulder. Then he gave them their shields. Young page boys were fastening on their spurs, and the Duke himself buckled their swords in place. Then the two youths knelt before him, and as he spoke he struck each one across the shoulders with the flat side of his own great sword.

"In the name of God and His Holy Saints I dub thee knight. Be loyal and brave, and be true to thy vows."

Then everyone went into the great hall. The upper part of the hall was raised like a platform. Here, seated at a long table facing the hall, were the Duke and his lady, the two new knights, Father Ambrose, and the noble guests. Other tables reached from the high table down the length of the room. Dickon scrambled into a vacant place beside Father Barney. The good priest could have had a place nearer the nobles, but he liked to stay among the common folk.



The people at the high table had been served. Now the cook's helpers put heavy wooden bowls of steaming food on the other tables. Before Dickon on the table was a large thick slice of hard dry bread. This was his trencher, or his plate. Father Barney smiled and reached for the bowl that was nearest. Out of it he dipped a great spoonful, first to his own trencher and then to Dickon's.

The boy could wait no longer. He seized the horn spoon and dug into the hot spicy mixture. Never had he tasted anything so good. He stuffed his mouth full. As bowls and platters came within reach Father Barney piled his trencher and Dickon's. It was better even than the Christmas feast at the castle, which Dickon still remembered. He did not stop eating when the trumpet blew again.

"Make merry, good people," said the Duke. "This is a great day. Our Francis becomes a knight and rides to serve God in the glorious crusade against unbelievers. With him go our bravest knights, all wearing the red cross of honor. Now to the courtyard to speed them well!"

"Father Barney," Dickon said, "what is the crusade? Where are the knights going? Into the valley beyond the mountains?"

"Much farther than that, my boy," replied the priest. "They will cross that valley and other valleys. They will join other knights with their squires and servants, a mighty company. Across the land they will travel, miles and miles, farther than you can imagine. At last they will reach the Holy Land of Palestine, where Christ our Savior lived and died on the cross."

Father Barney paused, and his hand made the sign of the cross. They had come into the courtyard now, and others near them gathered to listen as the priest continued.

"The Turks do not wish our Christian pilgrims to visit the holy city of Jerusalem. That



is why our knights go forth to do battle. The Pope in Rome, Father of all Christians, has asked it. Jerusalem must be set free. The tomb of Christ must belong to Christian people, so that pilgrims can go there unharmed."

At last the knights were ready. Fastened to the saddle of each squire were the helmet and shield of the knight he served, and his bundle of lances. The squires were proud to be going on this long journey. Each one believed that he would have a chance to do something daring on the field of battle. Then he might become a knight right away, without waiting to return home. Dickon stood silently watching and listening. In his heart was a great longing. He wished that he too could be a squire, making ready to become a knight. He longed for a fine, strong horse and a helmet with a waving plume.



Father Ambrose held up his hand. He was broad and tall and gray haired. There was a hush. The priest spoke the blessing of the Church on the knights.

"Amen!" he said at the end.

"Amen!" said everyone.

The trumpeters blew a loud clear note. The squires helped the knights to mount their horses, then leaped to their own saddles. The procession passed out of the wide door. Hoofs clattered on the drawbridge.

With the crowd Dickon moved toward the gate, crossed the moat to the grassy slope beyond. The horses and their noble riders were already far down the road. The excitement was over. Dickon stood still with the rest, and watched until the flashing armor and the bright banners disappeared behind the distant hill.


ATLANTIC
OCEAN
ICELAND
NORWAY
SWEDEN
BALTIC SEA
NORTH SEA
DENMARK
BRITISH ISLES
IRELAND
SCOTLAND
WALES
ENGLAND
Oxford
London
Elbe R.
Rhine R.
HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE
Wittenberg
POLAND
FLANDERS
NORMANDY
Clermont
Paris
Orleans
Heidelberg
GERMANY
Loire R.
FRANCE
CARPATHIANS
Vienna
HUNGARY
BAY OF BISCAY
BURGUNDY
ALPS
LOMBARDY
Venice
Genoa
Bologna
CROATIA
Florence
Danube R.
SERVIA
LEON
CASTILE
ARAGON
PYRENEES
SPAIN
Tagus R.
CORSICA
Rome
ITALY
BULGARIA
Salerno
SARDINIA
CORDOVA
MEDITERRANEAN
SICILY
GREECE
CRETE
AFRICA


URAL MTS.
EUROPE
IN THE MIDDLE AGES ABOUT 1000 AD
Ural R.
Volga R
Don R
ARAL SEA
CASPIAN SEA
ACK SEA
SIA MINOR
OMAN
PIRE
CYPRUS
SYRIA
PALESTINE
Jerusalem
Baghdad
PERSIAN GULF
111

Disorder in Europe

The story of Dickon and the knights who rode away is a story of life in Europe after the mighty Roman Empire had fallen. The city of Rome fell into the hands of the barbarians during the terrible years of warfare between 400 and 500, which we call the *fifth century*. The next thousand years, from 500 to about 1500, we call *medieval* times, or the *Middle Ages*. This is because these centuries seem to us to come in the middle, between the ancient days of Greece and Rome and our own modern times. This chapter and the next one tell about the way people lived in Europe during the Middle Ages. Things were changing slowly during this long, thousand-year period, and life became quite different in the last centuries of this period. For this reason we sometimes divide the Middle Ages into two parts.

The first part of the Middle Ages was a time of trouble and disorder. It is even called the "Dark Ages," because some people think that the light of learning and civilization went out. The "Dark Ages" were not so black as the name may make them sound. But they certainly did not have the light of the Roman Empire in its brightest days, nor of later ages which we shall study. The barbarians who came crowding into the Roman Empire did not understand the value of the Roman civilization. The Empire had already begun to weaken, and the barbarians destroyed much more. Buildings were not kept up, roads and bridges were not repaired. Then, of course, travel and trade stopped, and many stores had to close. People who could no longer earn a living in the towns moved to the country where they could raise their own food. Whether they wished to or not, they had to live much as the barbarians did. For a time Europe was full of fighting groups, who followed their chiefs from place to place, through the ruins of once pleasant towns. We want to understand what life was like in Europe during these centuries. Suppose first we find out a little more about the geography of Europe. What kind of land do we find there?

Europe is a small continent, with a very uneven coast. Or rather, it is the westernmost part of the great continent of Eurasia. The Mediterranean Sea stretches along on the south of Europe. Take a good look at the map on page 110 and see what ocean lies on the west. On the north of Europe you will find a large peninsula, called the Scandinavian Peninsula. Below it is the little peninsula of Denmark. Off the northwest coast are two islands called the British Isles. The narrow water passage between the British Isles and the mainland of Europe we call the English Channel. Find the North Sea and the Baltic Sea.

Europe has both mountain and lowland country. Locate the higher mountain ranges on your map, the Pyrenees, the Alps, and the Carpathians. These mountains form a great wall which divides northern Europe from the Mediterranean lands. The southern peninsulas, Spain and Italy and Greece, we know something about already. They are mountainous lands, but the mountains are not very high; and the climate in the valleys and lowlands is warm and pleasant.

North of this mountain wall is a great lowland plain where the climate is much cooler. In eastern Europe bitterly cold north winds sweep out of the Arctic and bring freezing weather in winter. Much of this country is forest-covered. Find the Ural Mountains in Russia. They are like a long fence separating Europe from Asia. Trace the Ural River, flowing through the lowland country into the Caspian Sea. Through this lowland gateway,

across the Ural River, came the Huns to attack the Teutonic tribes, and send them hurrying into the Roman Empire. Trace the Don and the Volga rivers. We shall hear about them later on, when we read the story of Russia.

Trace the long course of the Rhine and the Danube rivers. These rivers formed the northern boundary of the Roman Empire. When the Teutonic tribes crossed this boundary and came southward or westward into the Empire lands, they found them much pleasanter places in which to live than the cold northern forests they had left. Southern Europe is usually warm and sunny. Western Europe is mild, even in winter, because of warm winds blowing in from the Atlantic Ocean. And so the barbarians kept coming, group after group, tribe after tribe, for a long, long time.

There were a great many tribes of the Teutonic invaders. There is not room in this book to tell about all of them, but we may learn the names of a few. The map on page 115 shows you where some of them settled. The first to come into the Roman Empire were the Goths. The East Goths stormed into Italy and captured the great city of Rome. Their power lasted only about one hundred years. Then the Lombards came into northern Italy, which is called Lombardy to this day. The West Goths migrated into Spain. Do you remember what happened to them there?

After the Romans had left Britain the Angles and Saxons came across the sea and took the southern part of the island for themselves. They pushed the native people westward into Wales and northward into Scotland. The southern part became known as Angle land, or Engle land, which was later changed to England. We shall hear more about the Angles and Saxons, who are usually called the Anglo-Saxons.

The Franks, many tribes of them, lived in Gaul. The Gauls, as you know, had been conquered by Caesar. Their lands spread across the countries known today as France, Belgium, and Switzerland. The Gauls had already become accustomed to Roman civilization and they had accepted Christianity. They were a strong people and did not let the Franks take their land without hard fighting. But the Franks came in such numbers that they finally got possession of the land and settled down among the Gauls. Clovis, a brave young leader of the Franks, married a Christian princess and became a Christian himself. Under his rule the Franks accepted Christianity, and began to spread it far and wide among the tribes they conquered. This was how it happened that Gaul remained a Christian country, although it now belonged to the barbarian Franks.



The Franks were the strongest of the barbarian peoples. As time went by they had another enemy to fight. The West Goths, you may recall, had settled in Spain, south of the Pyrenees. Moslem armies had crossed over from Africa and conquered them. Spain was now a Moslem land, and the Moslems were not yet ready to end their conquering march. They rode northward through the mountain passes of the Pyrenees all ready to conquer the Franks. But the Franks now had another bold leader, a chief called Charles. When the Moslems in 732 came into battle with the Franks, it was the Moslems who were beaten by Charles and his Franks, and driven back out of Gaul into Spain. The Moslem armies were stopped at last. This battle helped to decide that Gaul and western Europe would remain Christian. Gaul came to be called France, or "the country of the Franks." The Frankish leader, after this victory, was always called Charles the Hammer.

Charles the Hammer had a famous grandson called Charlemagne, which means Charles the Great. Charlemagne was king of the Franks during the years from 768 to 814, at about the same time that Harun-al-Rashid in Baghdad was ruling the Moslems. Charlemagne was a great warrior, and he united all the Franks under his rule. He conquered some of the Teutonic tribes living east of the Rhine, whose land was later called Germany, and forced them to accept Christianity.

Charlemagne had great respect for learning, and he opened a school in the palace at his capital city. Here he brought the most learned men he could find to teach his sons and other young nobles. He also started other schools, and some of these lasted after his death, as we shall hear later on.

Finally the people were at peace through all the land that Charlemagne ruled. This territory was so large that it made people think of the days of the great Roman Empire.

Charles the Hammer defeated the Moslems





Charlemagne helped the Pope defeat his enemies, and in 800 the Pope crowned Charlemagne in Rome with the title "Emperor of the Romans." If you wish to see how much of Europe Charlemagne ruled, look carefully at the map on this page.

After Charlemagne's death the land was divided among his three grandsons. They were weak men who could not rule their own states or learn to co-operate among themselves. His empire soon fell apart into several sections, which were ruled by quarreling chieftains.

For a time in Europe the chief law was the law of force. Each strong noble seized all the land his men could conquer and hold. This land he divided among the lesser nobles who were the leaders of his fighting men. He called these leaders his *vassals*. In return for the land he gave them they promised to lead their men into battle whenever their lord commanded. The lesser lords, or vassals, in turn divided the land given them among their own vassals.

A vassal simply meant a man who promised loyalty and service to the lord who had given him his land. This promise was solemnly given as the vassal knelt and placed his hands between those of his lord. He swore to be faithful and to fight for his lord when called. This was really a way of paying the rent of his land by military service.

All these fighting men were called knights, and they were all nobles. They did not work themselves; they had laborers to do their work for them. They liked hunting and games of strength and skill, and spent much of their time fighting. The greater nobles often attacked each other, and each tried to take from

The barbarian settlements in Europe and the Empire of Charlemagne



the others as much land as he could. The most powerful noble was the one who owned the most land and had the most vassals, and therefore the largest number of soldiers. A lord who conquered many other lords sometimes called himself a king.

How People Lived in Feudal Times

The medieval centuries are often called *feudal* times. This is because the land given in return for military service was called a *fief*, or a *feud*. The fighting chieftains were called *feudal* lords. Everyone who had land held it as a fief, and owed service to the lord who had given it to him. Each lord was a vassal to some greater lord, or to a king. The great lords live in castles. The lesser lord's house was called a *manor* house. A lord's land with the buildings on it was called an estate, or a manor.

Who did the work for these nobles and their families? Who raised the grain to feed them, and tended the sheep and cattle and pigs? Every noble family was served by a large number of laborers. These serving people had no horses, no armor, and no weapons with which to fight. They were called *serfs*. Their duty was to produce food for the nobles, as well as for themselves. In return for this they were defended from the attacks of enemy armies, just as Father Barney in our story said.

Every manor had its village of laborers or serfs. Each serf was given certain strips of land for himself. In return for this he had to work three days out of the week on his lord's land. Besides this, he paid a part of his own crop each year to his lord. He took his grain to the lord's mill to be ground into flour, and left a part of the flour to pay for the grinding. He took his bread to be baked in the lord's oven, and left a loaf in payment. He brought a gift when the lord's daughter was married, or when the lord's son was made a knight, just as the villagers did in our story. Often he had to give so much to the lord that there was very little left for himself and his family. His wife and children worked with him for long hours in the fields. The life of the serf was usually very hard, much work and very little pleasure.

The nobles enjoyed hunting. On the estate of a great lord a large forest was kept for hunting. The meat of deer, hare, and wild fowl was served at the noble's table. But the serf was not allowed to kill any wild animal for food. If he did so and was caught he was cruelly punished. Sometimes he could catch fish in the nearby river, but usually his food was hard dark bread and cheese, with vegetables from his field.

There was no freedom for the serf. He could do nothing without the permission of the lord who was his master. A Roman slave belonged to the man who bought him, but in medieval Europe a serf belonged to the land on which he lived. If the land was taken by some stronger lord the serfs, too, changed masters, just as did the sheep and cattle. Some lords were harder masters than others. But no matter how cruelly a serf was treated he usually did not dare to run away. Where could he go? And how could he find food? If he did try to escape he had to travel through forest or mountain land, with no protection from wild beasts or roaming bands of robbers, who could easily make him a serf again or sell him as a slave. Most serfs never thought of getting away, for their life anywhere else would have been just as hard. The serf lived and worked on the land, and his children grew up to take his place. They, too, were serfs.



The estate of a feudal lord



The sons of all nobles were trained to be knights. When a boy was seven he might be sent, like Miles in our story, to the great house or castle of his father's lord. Or if his own father was a lord, he would begin his training in his own castle, like Francis, the son of the Duke. There for several years he lived as a *page*. He ran errands and did small services for the ladies of the castle, who taught him manners and how to act and speak according to the proper forms. Many of these manners have been passed on to us as the customs of courtesy and politeness.

There were certain things a knight must always remember, promises he made when he became a knight. He must always keep his word. He must never take advantage of an





enemy in a moment of weakness. He must always protect the weak, the helpless, and the old. Much of what we call being a "good sport" comes down to us from these days of knighthood. Besides following the knights' rules of courtesy and honor, the page learned also to ride a horse, and to take part in games with other pages.

After some years the page became a *squire.* Usually he became the special servant of some knight. He polished the knight's armor, served him, carried his weapons, and went with him into battle. When the squire reached manhood he was made a knight by some noble or king. As part of his preparation for knighthood, the squire learned to ride well and to handle weapons. He also learned to joust.





Jousting was the favorite sport of knights. In a joust two knights rode directly toward each other with their lances raised. As they passed, each tried to strike the shield of the other squarely in the center, hard enough to knock him from his horse. A very skillful knight could unhorse many rival knights, one after another.

The great lords often held tournaments, or jousting contests. They invited knights from far and near to take part. A large square open space was marked off and called the *lists*. Around this space were the tents of the visiting knights and their squires. On the day of the tournament heralds called out the events. Lords and ladies watched and cheered from their seats in the *pavilion*, which we would have called a grandstand. The knights jousted two by two, or sometimes one great company against another, like a make-believe battle. The most successful knight was crowned and given great praise and honor. This was a favorite medieval form of public entertainment. The people enjoyed it just the way the Greeks enjoyed the Olympic games and the Romans flocked to see chariot races and gladiators fighting in the arena.

Castles were built for protection. Each lord knew that other lords might at any time become his enemies, and he tried to build his

castle strong enough to withstand any attack. In the early centuries the castles were built of huge, heavy wooden timbers. Around castle and courtyard was a wall, which was wide and flat on top so that the people could stand on it and throw down stones and shoot arrows at their enemies. At each corner of the wall stood a tower where a watchman looked out over the country far and wide, to give the alarm if an enemy should draw near. Sometimes a moat, a sort of ditch filled with water, surrounded the wall. The moat was crossed by a drawbridge, which could be raised in time of battle and lowered when the danger was past. There are many exciting stories of these tough old fighting days.

How Christianity Helped to Hold Europe Together

After the fall of Rome there was no strong central government in western Europe. The emperors in Constantinople could not control even the barbarian tribes in eastern Europe. They were much too far away to control those in the western lands. Western Europe which had once been united under the Roman emperors fell apart into smaller regions, ruled by the strongest of the barbarian chiefs.

But there was one thing which all the people of western Europe finally had in common. That one thing was the Christian religion. Christianity spread through the whole feudal world, and kings, nobles, and serfs were all held together in loyalty to their faith. They all had the same Christian belief, the same Church, the same Pope.

The nobles and knights had a great respect for the Church of Rome. They obeyed the messages and warnings of the Pope and his bishops much better than you might expect such rude fighting men to do. The Church had come to be called *the* Catholic Church. The word *Catholic* means "belonging to everybody." The Church was in some ways almost like a government over all of western Europe, and the Pope was the leader of the Church.

The work of the monks. When the barbarians from the north began to crowd into the Roman Empire, some of the Romans were distressed by the disorder and fighting. They wanted to work in peaceful ways for God and their fellow men. One of these men was Benedict of Rome. He started an order, or society, of men called monks, and made rules for their life. The monks lived together in a group of buildings known as a monastery. They made a solemn promise, or vow, never to keep anything for their own, never to marry, and to obey without question. They lived and worked together as brothers, and spent much time in prayer.

The idea spread, and monasteries gradually appeared all over Europe. Each one was like a little peaceful world shut within walls. It had its own garden, its sheep and cattle, and its shops in which the monks worked. "Idleness," said Benedict, "is an enemy of the soul, and gives the devil his chance. To work is to pray."

The monks called each other "brother," and chose one of their number to be the head, or "father." The head of a monastery was the *abbot*. He planned the work for the monks, and according to their promise they had to obey him. The monastery was a busy place. Each monk had his own tasks and worked hard during much of the day. He also spent much time reading the Bible and other Christian books, and often prayed far into the night. The monk wore a coarse long robe with a rope around his waist, and he slept on the floor in his little cell.



The monks found time to help the people in many ways. There were no nurses or doctors, but the monks knew something about caring for the sick. Also the monastery was a place of safety. Even robber bands left the monks and their home unharmed. There were almost no inns, and towns and villages were far apart. The few travelers who passed through the country could find food and a place to sleep at the monastery.

The monks did much to keep and pass on ancient knowledge. The few Roman and Greek books which had been saved from the barbarians were in the monasteries. The monks were usually the only people who could read and write. Sometimes they taught a small school, like those Charlemagne had started. They were often the only teachers for the few people who had the desire and the time to learn.

Certain of the monks were called *scribes*. These scribes were not lawyers, like the scribes of the Jews, but simply men who could read and write. They spent their time making new copies of the old books. For the pages they used parchment made of sheepskin. Hour after hour, day after day, the scribe did his copying. He worked carefully and lovingly, making each letter by hand. He took delight in painting the borders of the pages with flowers, leaves, animals, and lovely designs. These parchment books are called *manuscripts*, which means "written by hand." The manuscripts were usually bound in leather and often trimmed with gold and jewels. Some of the old Roman and Greek writings, and many Christian writings were kept in this way. These manuscripts that the monks made may be seen today in some museums and libraries.

There were other Christian workers called friars. Friar means brother. Just as the first order of monks was founded by Benedict, one of the first orders of friars was founded by Francis of Assisi more than six hundred years later. Francis had been a light-hearted youth, the son of wealthy parents, but he decided to give up his easy, thoughtless life. "I shall spend the rest of my life helping the poor," he said. "All who would be my companions must do the same, give everything they have to the poor and spend their lives in helping others."

He gave away his wealth and started out barefoot, wearing a coarse brown robe. Other youths followed his example. They called themselves the "Little Brothers of the Poor." Instead of living together in one home, as the monks did, the friars went all over the countryside, helping those who were sick or in trouble. They accepted food and a sleeping place from anyone who gave it, and begged gifts for those who were in need. The friars were friendly to everyone, and were made welcome wherever they went.

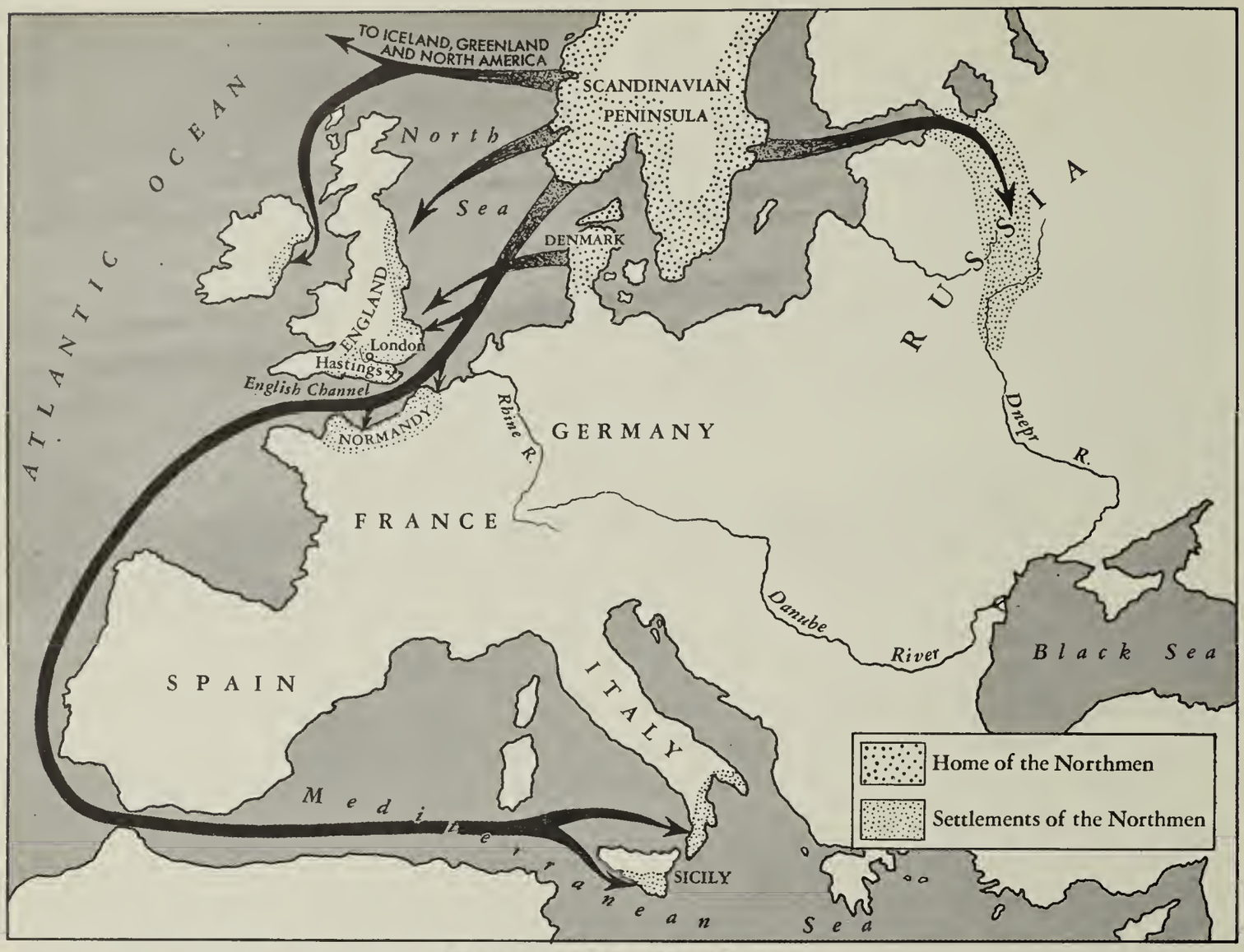
Today there are many different orders of monks and friars, each started by a different person. Also groups of Christian women were formed to live together and help others. They are known as nuns. Modern nuns are often nurses or teachers.

The Coming of the Northmen

About the middle of the Dark Ages a new invasion of barbarians began. They did not begin to come until the Teutonic tribes had settled down where they were to stay, the Lombards in Italy, the Franks in Gaul, the Anglo-Saxons in England. On page 124 is another map of Europe to show you the place where these newcomers started. Find the Scandinavian Peninsula and the peninsula of Denmark. On these two peninsulas lived a sturdy people called the Northmen. The Norwegians, the Swedes, and the Danes, who live in these two peninsulas today, are of the same race as these early Northmen. These peninsulas have many good harbors and not far away is the long coast line of the rest of Europe. No wonder the Northmen became sailors and went in search of adventure on the sea.

Vikings, they were called, these bold seamen from the north. Their black ships were long and narrow, with forty or fifty oars and bright-colored sails as well. The high prows were carved like the heads of dragons, and the sterns like dragon tails. Along the sides hung the shields of the warrior sailors. The Northmen were explorers, they were traders, and





Voyages of the Northmen

they were very often pirates. Look at the map on this page which shows the routes of their ships, and you can see how far in all directions the daring vikings sailed.

Some went to the west and discovered Iceland and Greenland, where they planted trading colonies. Some went even farther, to the coast of North America. They were the first explorers from Europe to reach our continent.

Other Northmen sailed eastward, along the northern coast of the country which today is called Russia. They rowed their long ships far up the rivers in the summertime. They made their way along one of these rivers to the region of the Black Sea or the Caspian. Later we shall hear more of these Northmen.

The Northmen in England. It was very easy for Northmen from Denmark to raid the nearby coast of England. Along that coast the very word *viking* struck terror to the hearts of the villagers. Year after year the bold raiders landed, carried off the newly harvested grain, and often robbed and burned the towns. Finally some of them settled down on a wide strip along the eastern coast of England.

The rest of England was divided into small Anglo-Saxon kingdoms. The Anglo-Saxons, though they were rude and barely civilized, were very proud of their freedom. Each group chose its own king, but a council of leaders made the laws and gave advice to the king. The kings of these little kingdoms quarreled

and fought with one another. The Danes might have been able to take the whole land, because of this disorder, had it not been for Alfred, the king of Wessex.

Alfred, King of Wessex, was a bold leader. He led his men bravely into battle after battle against the Danes. Finally other kings joined forces with him, and under the leadership of Alfred the Danes were pushed back. Some of them continued to live in England, and their little towns soon became thriving centers of trade. The Danes lived together with the Saxons until they gradually became one people.

King Alfred proved as wise in peace as he was bold in war. He sent for teachers and started a school at his court, so that the young nobles could learn to read Latin. This was the language used in all Church services. It was also used by learned men throughout Europe for books, letters, and other writing. Alfred traveled to the mainland of Europe to learn how he could help his people further. He invited traders and teachers from other parts of the continent to bring their wares and their knowledge to England. He did so much to bring all the Saxon tribes together into one kingdom that the English people since then have always called him Alfred the Great. He died in 900, just about one hundred years after the time of Charlemagne.

The Northmen in France. Others of the Northmen settled on the northern coast of France. The people there called them *Normans* and this part of France has been called Normandy ever since. The Normans accepted the Christian religion, and began to copy the more civilized ways of the people of France. During the next hundred years or more the Norman

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Traders and teachers from the continent came to the court of Alfred the Great



lords grew powerful and wanted more land. William, Duke of Normandy, made up his mind to take the kingdom of England. He set sail from Normandy with his fighting men, crossed the English Channel, and landed on the coast of England in the year 1066. In a great battle near Hastings he defeated Harold, the king, rode into the city of London in triumph, and made himself king of England.

Then William the Conqueror settled down to rule England. He took land from the Saxon lords who had fought against him and gave it to the Norman nobles who had fought for him. For a time the Saxon lords hated him bitterly, and would give him neither help nor obedience. But the king was a strong and determined ruler, and slowly won their admiration.

William needed money to pay his government officials and his soldiers, and to build roads and bridges. This money had to be raised by taxes. In order to find out how much his subjects could be taxed, William sent men all over the country to list all property. All the land, all the cattle, every horse and pig, was set down in the record. This list was called the *Domesday Book*. It is one of the most valuable historical records we have, because it shows so clearly what people had and how they lived at that time.

William very wisely allowed the Saxons to keep many of their own laws and customs, and their village courts and officials. Gradually the Saxons' hatred for the Normans died away, and in time both groups mingled together and became the English people. William brought to England many French customs and laws, and made England more truly a part of Europe.

Pilgrims and Crusaders

Traveling in Europe was very difficult during these days. Most of the old Roman roads and bridges had fallen into ruin. Robbers roamed the country. A poor man could go only on foot. If a man was rich enough to own a horse, he still ran the risk of meeting robbers who would take both his horse and his purse, and perhaps his life as well. There was no strong government to keep order.

Yet some people did travel. Often a man or woman undertook a journey for the purpose of praying at some holy place. Such a person was called a *pilgrim*, and his journey was a *pilgrimage*. It was thought that a journey of this kind would bring health or happiness to the pilgrim. If he suffered hardships in making the journey, he felt that he was proving his faith in God.

In the churches everywhere people heard the teaching of the Church about Jesus and his disciples. Many of the people wished to go to Palestine, the Holy Land, to see for themselves the places where their religion had had its beginnings. They wanted to go to Jerusalem and kneel in prayer at the tomb of Jesus.

The Holy Land did not belong to the Christians. Palestine had been for a long time in the power of the Arabs. Although the Arabs were Moslems and did not themselves worship Jesus, they allowed the Christian pilgrims to visit his tomb.

But a change had taken place in that eastern land. In the eleventh century the Arab and the Persian caliphs had been conquered by the Turks. The Turks were Moslem also, but they were a fierce and warlike people. They tried at first to capture Constantinople, the capital of the last bit of the old Roman Empire, but they did not succeed. They did succeed, however, in taking and holding Asia



Minor, Syria, and Palestine. (Look at the map on page 110 and be sure that you know where these places are.) The Turks were more harsh than the Arabs. They sometimes treated the Christian pilgrims cruelly. It was said that they killed many of them and had thrown others into prison.

Of the Eastern Roman Empire little remained but the capital city of Constantinople. The emperor trembled for fear he would lose that as well if the warlike Turks could not be stopped. He sent letters to the Pope at Rome, begging him earnestly for help against the Moslem Turks.

Pope Urban resolved that something should be done. He called a great gathering in the year 1095 at the town of Clermont in France. So many thousands came to hear him speak that no building would hold them. The Pope told the people that the Holy City of Jerusalem where Jesus had walked must not belong to people who did not accept the Christian faith. He urged his Christian listeners to go to Palestine and seize Jerusalem. And the people shouted in reply, "It is God's will."

The Pope's message spread rapidly through Europe. A time was set for the knights to gather to make ready for the long journey to the Holy Land. This journey was called a "crusade," and the knights were called *Crusaders*, from the Latin word for "cross." One of those who helped to spread the word was a monk called Peter the Hermit. Riding on a donkey and carrying a heavy cross, he journeyed through France, urging people everywhere to join the crusade.

Christians called the Moslems "unbelievers" because they did not believe as the Christians

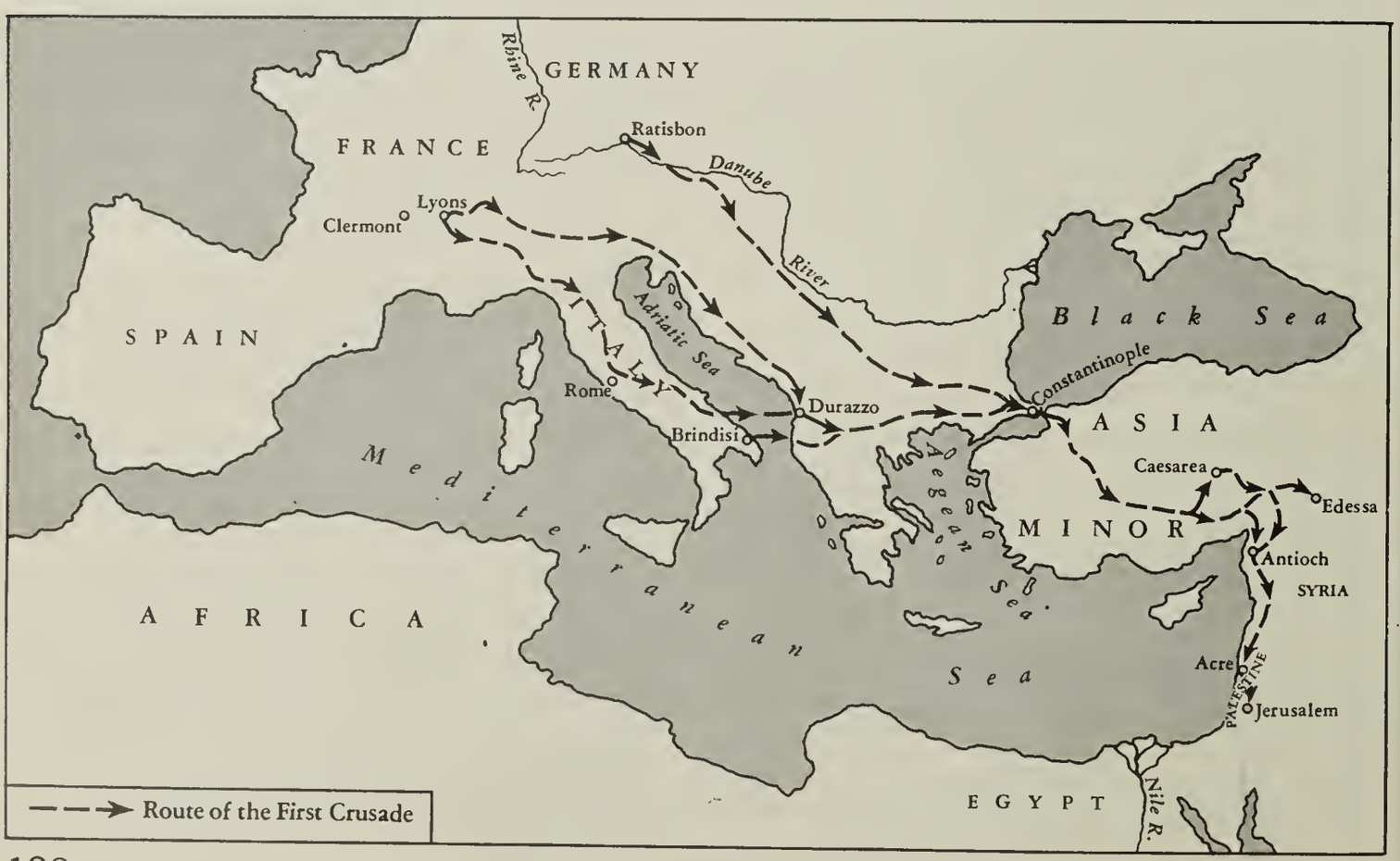
did. People listened eagerly to Peter the Hermit, and to many of them this fight against unbelievers sounded like a brave adventure. They did not wait for the time agreed upon, but put a red cross on breast or shoulder and set out at once. This, of course, proved to be very unwise. They had little food and few weapons. They did not really understand that Palestine was two thousand miles away, across strange and dangerous country. Many fell ill and died on the way, others became discouraged and turned back. Few ever reached Palestine.

The First Crusade. Meanwhile companies of knights gathered in France, Italy, and Germany, with supplies of food, weapons, and horses. Look at the map below and you can see how far they had to travel. They too suffered hardships on the journey, and several years went by before the warriors from Europe reached Palestine. They finally surrounded Jerusalem, and after three months of fighting captured the city.

Most of the Crusaders then turned back toward their homes with great joy in this victory. Jerusalem was at last in Christian hands. Bands of Christian knights remained behind to hold the land against "unbelievers," and Jerusalem was held by the Crusaders for about one hundred years. But the Turkish forces again invaded little Palestine, and most of the Holy Land was lost by the Christians.

There was another Crusade, and another. Again and again kings and dukes and knights made the long journey. They built ships and went by sea to fight for the land of the Cross. But they were not successful. Palestine remained in the hands of the Turks. And it remained under Turkish rule until after the First World War in our own century.

Route of the First Crusade





Christian knights guarded Jerusalem

Study Questions

1. What seas wash the coasts of Europe?
2. What are the highest mountains?
3. Why did the climate of western Europe encourage the barbarians to migrate?
4. What tribes entered Italy and captured Rome?
5. What tribes settled later in northern Italy?
6. What tribes settled in Spain, and what happened to them?
7. What tribes settled in southern Britain?
8. What large group of barbarians crowded into Gaul?
9. Give some reasons why Charlemagne is famous.
10. Why are the Middle Ages called "feudal" times?
11. How did the serfs pay for their land and safety?
12. What was a tournament?
13. In what two ways did the Northmen have a large part in making the English nation?
14. Who were the pilgrims?
15. What was the purpose of the Crusades?

Using the Encyclopedia

All of you know by this time that the dictionary is one of your best friends. It can tell you what a word means, how to spell and pronounce it, and where it came from. Another book which can be just as useful is the *encyclopedia*. Here you will find information on almost everything you can think of: people, places, and events,

birds, animals, and plants, mountains, deserts, and countries, how things are grown, made, or done. The encyclopedia is really a library in itself.

Since it contains so much information, the encyclopedia is a very large book, or it may be three or four books, or a whole row of books. But just remember that, like the dictionary, it is arranged according to the alphabet. If there are many volumes, look carefully on the back of each volume until you find the one that will contain the word you are looking for.

The encyclopedia can tell you a great deal about the people you are studying. It can help you make time lines, for it will supply many dates. Suppose you let the encyclopedia help you make a new kind of time line for the chapter you have been studying. We can call it a *Hero Time Line.*

1. In your notebook draw a time line for the Early Middle Ages, from 450 to 1100 A.D.
2. Mark it off in periods of fifty years, and put the correct date at each division line.
3. Here are six men about whom you learned something in this chapter: William the Conqueror, Charles the Hammer, Alfred the Great, Charlemagne, Benedict, and Clovis. Look up each one in the encyclopedia, and find out when he lived.
4. Write his name beside the time line during the period in which he lived.
5. Skim through the article about him in the encyclopedia to see what new things you can learn.

A Class Discussion of Feudalism

Here are some questions to talk over. Can you think of others?

1. Would the castles you have been reading about seem to us comfortable places in which to live? Why?
2. Was there much freedom in Europe during feudal times? Why do you think so?
3. How many rules of courtesy can you think of which probably began with the customs of the knights?
4. What rules of fair play in sports began with their customs?
5. What reasons can you think of that would make a poor man of the Middle Ages wish to join a crusade?

A Story Game

Each of the blanks in this story can be filled by one of the words listed below the story. Each word is used to fill a blank only once. First, list the numbers of the blanks up to sixteen on a separate piece of paper. Write beside each number the word you think belongs in that blank. When you complete your list, with no words left over or misplaced, you are ready to copy the story. Write it in your notebook, putting the proper word in each blank.

Sir Oliver Receives an Invitation

Sir Oliver Hardhead was a noble knight of the Middle Ages. He lived in a *__1__* house surrounded by ample acres. Near his house was a *__2__* where lived the *__3__* who tilled the fields for Sir Oliver.

Now Sir Oliver was the *__4__* of a powerful *__5__* who had given him his land as a *__6__*, and who lived in a great castle some distance away. One day a horseman arrived with a message for Sir Oliver, bidding him come to the *__7__* to take part in a *__8__*.

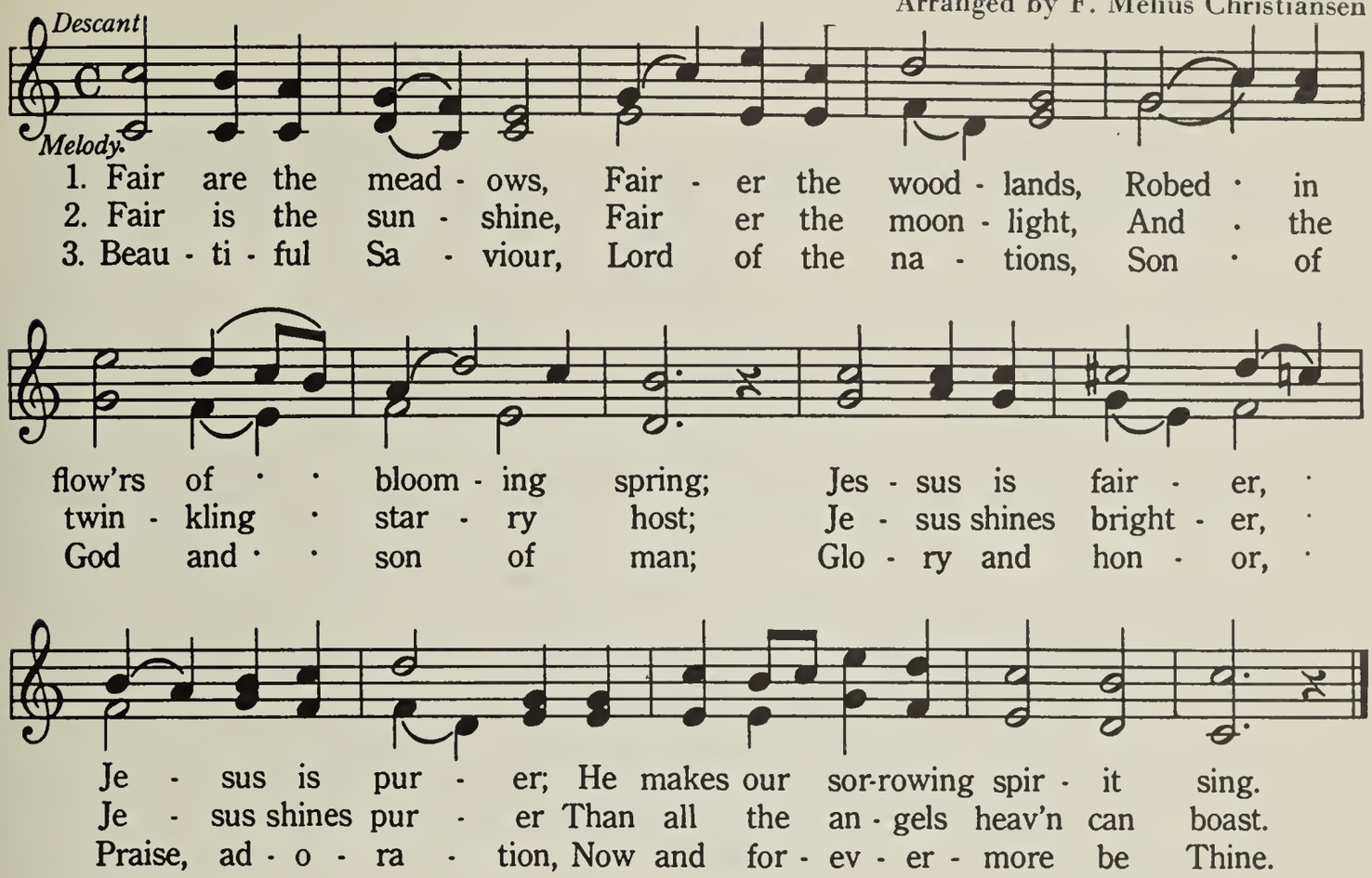
"Splendid!" cried Sir Oliver, and sent at once for his *__9__*. "Prepare my horses, and see to my *__10__* and my lances!" he ordered.

"Make ready your holiday dress, my love," he said to his lady. "You and your *__11__* shall go with me. You shall sit at ease in the *__12__* and watch the contests. I shall enter the *__13__*. Many *__14__* who have returned from the *__15__* will be there. But none can *__16__* more skillfully than I. Perhaps, who knows, I may even win the prize!"

squire	fief	tournament	lists
vassal	lord	pavilion	pages
crusade	manor	village	castle
joust	serfs	knights	armor

Crusaders' Hymn

Arranged by F. Melius Christiansen



Things to Do with Music and Pictures

1. Travelers of the Middle Ages often made the time pass more quickly by singing. Most people who love music know the Pilgrims' Chorus from *Tannhäuser*. Wagner, the great German composer of the opera, tells the story of a youth who started with a band of pilgrims for the Holy Land. They passed through a place where merrymakers were holding a noisy carnival. In the music the song of the merrymakers is combined, or joined, with the chorus the pilgrims are singing. If there is a phonograph at your school perhaps you can get this record to play for the class.

Another song from the Middle Ages is called the Crusaders' Hymn, "Fairest Lord Jesus." This is another old favorite with many people. The words and music are given above, so that the class can sing it together. As you listen to the words, imagine the pilgrims plodding along together through woods and fields, sometimes in the fresh morning hours of early spring, sometimes in the evening by the light of moon and stars. This song, too, comes from the German. It reminds us that Christian pilgrims started to the Holy Land from all parts of Europe. The Christian religion was one thing which they all had in common.

2. Appoint a committee to collect pictures of medieval castles, dress, and armor. Have an exhibit of these pictures.

3. In your notebook draw pictures showing the training of a knight or the life of a monk.

4. Some of the class might enjoy drawing a large plan of a medieval castle and its grounds. Show how the fields of the noble were laid out. Your librarian will help you find pictures to guide you.

7. The Later Middle Ages: a "New Birth" of Civilization



A Story · From Serf to Freeman

Kurt the Weaver was a good-natured fellow. He allowed his helpers a great deal of freedom. Sometimes, when there was much work to be done, everyone was very quiet and busy in the shop. But more often there was an air of pleasant friendliness. Laughter went the rounds as shuttles flew to and fro, and tongues were as busy as fingers. This was the case one morning about the year 1100. One of the weavers, named Jan, had a cousin who had just come back from far lands. What tales he told of the strange places he had seen in the East! Jan was full of them, repeating the stories proudly to his fellow workmen. Each of the other weavers was eager to tell some bit of travel talk he had heard, for during the past year a number of people who had joined the crusade had come home from the Mediterranean lands with wonders to tell.

"In the market place of Acre," said Jan, "are great beasts called camels. They have a hump on their backs—"

"Are they savage creatures, Jan?"

"No, by my life, but patient as an ox. Between the humps they carry heavy loads. These beasts, they say, can travel long dis-

tances with little food and nothing to drink. They bring their loads from still more distant countries, across wide wastes of sand, where there is no water and never a tree growing."

"And in those loads, now, what do they bring to the market place, Jan?"

"Oh, soft woven stuffs, wondrous fine—"

"Finer than Master Cary's weaving?"

"Ay, finer, and smoothly shining. They make garments from them. But other stuffs are thick, and with rich patterns. They put them on floors, to make the floor softer to walk on! Think of that!"

"Jewels there are, I have heard," spoke up another, "bright and sparkling, such as only a king could buy. Such things are common in those lands. And spices! Many kinds of spices, pepper and clove and cinnamon—fine-tasting and strange. I tell you there are more spices than even the cooks at the castle have ever seen! Would it not be grand to travel to those lands?"

A loud clatter at the door brought a sudden silence, and Kurt the master came through from the inner room and himself opened the outside door. There stood a broad man with a tall lad beside him.

"I wish to speak with Kurt the Weaver," he said.

"I am Kurt the Weaver," replied the master. "Come in and tell me what you want."

"Ay, to be sure," said the man as they entered. "God bless you. I am not of this town. I am a harnessmaker from the village beyond the wood. This is my nephew, Raf. I want him to become a weaver. Will you teach him the trade?"

"He looks like a good lad," said Kurt. "Why do you not teach him the leather-worker's trade?"

"That is an honest question," said the other. "I can tell you the whole story, if you want to take the boy."

Kurt nodded, and looked at Raf.

"What say, boy? Will you be an earnest worker, industrious and patient? Weaving is not learned quickly. Are you strong?"

"I am that," said Raf.

"You will have to live here with me and begin at the beginning. I will feed and clothe you, but you must serve me faithfully. An apprentice must do errands and help in many ways about the house and shop. But meanwhile you will begin to learn the secrets of the weaver's art. It will take seven years for you to learn what I can teach you."

"And what happens after that?" asked Raf.

"After that, Raf, if you have worked well, you will be a journeyman. You will go from place to place working for other weavers, the way these fellows here work for me. You will learn new things, and see how other weavers work. For even I myself, although I have long



been a weaver, do not know everything about weaving. Then you can come back and ask to be admitted to our guild. The guild officials will give you an examination, and they will set you a task. You will have to do a certain piece of weaving. This will be your masterpiece, and you will do it every bit yourself, with all your skill, to show the guild leaders how well you have learned your trade. If they decide that this is master work, and quite satisfactory, you will be a master weaver and a member of our guild. Then you can set up shop for yourself, and have apprentices of your own. Now how does that sound to you, Raf? Do you still want to become a weaver?"

"I do, sir," answered the boy. "It sounds long and hard, but I knew it would be. I will serve you well if you will teach me the trade."

Kurt the Weaver nodded, and led them outside the door. Inside the talk began again, but in a low tone.

"I have eyes and ears," said Jan. "That lad is a runaway serf from some manor or castle, or I am badly mistaken."

"And if he is," said another, "what of that? He has an honest look about him. Who would want to go back to a serf's life? I will tell no tales, no matter who comes after him, not I."

The others caught the idea. No master was more friendly than Kurt, and those who worked for him learned to be friendly too. There was a law that a runaway serf could not be forced to return to his lord after a year and a day had passed.

"Many a bit of help was I given when I learned the weaver's trade," said one of the journeymen. "I'll be one to help the fellow."

"A year is full short in the weaver's trade," said another, "but long enough to turn a serf into a freeman."

Again the laughter went the rounds as the shuttles plied to and fro.

The Coming Change

Life in Europe was changing. You have just read a story of the time when the Dark Ages were slowly giving way to greater freedom and learning. The world is always changing. Some changes are sudden, but many changes come very gradually. People often cannot see that a change is taking place. Or when they do see something new happening, they may not know how important it will be to their own lives and to the world. This was how it was in Europe, when the love of learning and the love of freedom began to grow deeper and stronger. These feelings had not died during the time after the fall of Rome, but they had grown weaker. Sometimes they almost seemed to disappear, during the rude and brutal years of the Dark Ages.

These years had been "dark" for many reasons, but three of the most important reasons were serfdom, ignorance, and disorder. Every man was supposed to obey the lord who gave him his land, and this meant that everyone was under the command of someone else. The poor serfs were little more than slaves. Not only were their bodies not really their own, but their minds were shut in. They were ignorant, for there were no schools. They knew little of the life or the world beyond their own village. Their pleasures were few and simple, and their days were filled with work and weariness. The nobles lived with greater comfort and pleasure. A few could even read and write, but their minds were not awake. There was little education, even among the rich.



Fine cloth, rugs, jewels, and spices were sold in the markets of the East

Europe was broken into many groups fighting one another. No one was free from fear. The people feared the nobles and the nobles feared each other. In many parts of Europe there was little order or security. But slowly a change was taking place, a change which was caused by many different things.

The Crusades had a part in this change. Poor men as well as rich men had set out for Palestine. The Crusaders who returned had much to tell about Constantinople and the cities of Asia Minor. They had seen people whose dress was different from theirs, and who lived in different kinds of houses. People began to realize that the world was much larger than they had thought, and they wanted to learn more about it. All this was education, a small beginning of freedom of the mind. For the beginning of learning is the wish to learn.

The Crusaders had seen the eastern markets with the pepper and other spices which made their food taste better. They brought new fruits to plant in their gardens: melons, peaches, apricots, lemons. They brought fine cloth to make clothing: silk and linen cloth, softer and more comfortable than the rough wool which they had been using. They brought new ideas of beauty for their castles and churches. All this meant new ways of thinking, and new things to think about.

Trade and Towns

Another cause of the change in Europe was trade. Increasing trade helped to bring freedom and learning back into Europe. As long as man has lived on the earth there has been trade. In the days of the Greeks and Romans, the Mediterranean was the great highway of trade. Goods from the countries of Asia came to the eastern Mediterranean ports by camel train or mule train or oxcart, then went by ship to Italian and Spanish ports. There they were loaded into carts which made their way along the Roman roads all over western Europe.

Even after the destruction of the Roman Empire a few cargo ships still sailed the Mediterranean. When the Arabs conquered northern Africa, Arab ships ruled the Mediterranean. Shipping from Europe stopped almost completely. But finally the cities in northern Italy began to trade again with the East, and they grew through their trade.

Look now at the map on page 137 and find two of these cities, Genoa and Venice. Genoa is a harbor city on the west coast of Italy. Venice is built on a small group of islands on the east coast. These two cities began to build trading fleets. They fought against the merchant and pirate ships of the Arabs until they made a place for themselves in the Mediterranean. Then Genoa and Venice became rivals. Each city tried to get a better position at the ports of the eastern Mediterranean in order to get richer cargoes to carry home to Italy.

Trade with the East increased. The Roman Empire in the East was now very small, but Constantinople, the capital, was still a rich and strong city. To its harbor and market place came all the goods of the Far East. From Arabia, from Persia, from India and China, came perfumes, ivory, jewels, linen, and cotton cloth. Cotton cloth was new to Europeans, for cotton was not raised in Europe. From India and the islands to the south came spices—cinnamon, pepper, and cloves—which were not grown in Europe.





Trade routes of the Middle Ages

On this page you will find a map showing the roads by which these things came. This map shows the southern and central part of Asia with its long trade routes. Goods came by slow-sailing eastern ships to the northern end of the Persian Gulf. There they were loaded on camels and carried in long caravans across the deserts of Arabia and Syria. Goods were also carried through the Red Sea to Egypt.

Farther north there were inland routes from India and China to ports on the Black Sea and the Caspian Sea. Often these were merely rough trails which led across wide deserts and through passes in the high mountains. Over these trails, on the backs of mules or camels, came packs of fine silks and jewels of many colors. The busy bazaars, or shopping centers, of Constantinople were full of these things. Here the merchants of Venice and Genoa loaded their ships with eastern goods.

When these ships docked in Italy the fine things were sold for high prices. The precious wares were then loaded onto ships or carried in donkey carts or on the backs of mules along the forest trails and through the mountain passes of Europe. The people in the feudal lands of Europe who had enough money were eager to get them. They had no ice, and often their meat was strong-tasting or half-spoiled. Spices made it taste better. Their own clothing was of leather and rough woolen cloth, and they were eager for garments of fine, smooth cotton and silk. After the Crusades began, people learned more about the products of the East, and trade grew rapidly.

Trade made new towns. Where one trade route crossed another, a town began to grow. Sometimes at such a crossroads town a fair was held which lasted many days. Merchants came from far and near to sell their goods, and



Townsmen bargained with the lord of their village for a town charter

the people came to buy. This made the town grow steadily. Often a peasant village on some lord's estate became a trading spot. Merchants settled in these towns to carry on their trade. Gradually men who could work in wood or metal or leather came to live there. Such skilled workmen are called *craftsmen*. There were goldsmiths, weavers, dyers, bakers, glassmakers, and many others. They were not serfs but freemen. Some of the merchants and some of the craftsmen grew rich.

These growing towns brought freedom to many. The lord who owned the land was glad to have merchants in the town, for he needed the work of skilled craftsmen. He wished them to stay on his land. Also he needed money, and the merchants and craftsmen had money. He could get money from them to pay the costs of his fights with other lords. The merchants and craftsmen agreed to pay a high price for the land, but in return they demanded certain rights and privileges. The lord gave them a town *charter*. This was a written agreement listing the things the citizens of the town could do without asking permission from the lord. By such methods as this the townsmen kept increasing their privileges, and gradually won their freedom from the lords. They made their own government. They elected a mayor and chose a town council to make laws. Often they built a wall around the town to protect it from attack.

In some parts of Europe the men who worked at each *craft*, or trade, formed a sort of club, called a *guild*. There was a goldsmiths' guild, a weavers' guild, a carpenters' guild, and many others. The men who belonged to a guild made rules about the prices to be paid for what was made, and about the kind of work that must be done. Nobody was allowed to

sell things that were not well made. The members of a guild helped each other in trouble or sickness. The guilds erected beautiful buildings for their meetings, and some of these guild halls are still standing.

The guilds did something important for the growth of democracy. They taught men to work together in a friendly spirit, to make just rules about their work, and to see that these rules were obeyed. The guildsmen were learning things that would some day be useful in making laws for governing a country. We must remember this, that wherever and whenever people co-operate to govern themselves, to make laws that are fair to all and see that they are kept, they are working together in the cause of freedom and democracy.



There were more changes. It is hard to tell just when the first part of the Middle Ages ended and a greater interest in learning began to develop, because the change took place gradually. The Crusades did a great deal to change conditions in Europe, and to bring to an end the Dark Ages. If we wish to choose a certain year to mark the end of the first period of the Middle Ages and the beginning of the second, we might choose the year 1100, about six hundred years after the barbarians had taken possession of Rome. It was just before 1100 that the First Crusade took place.

One important change was in ways of building. Before the Crusades, almost all the castles were built of wood. Now brick and stone began to be used. The lords wanted strong, lasting castles, which would hold out when attacked, and could not be burned by their enemies. For the location of his castle the lord usually chose a hill or a high cliff, or sometimes an island in a river or lake. There were still many wars between the lords. Sometimes one of them grew strong enough to make himself king. This happened in France and in England. But other lords were still powerful enough at times to make war even against the king. These medieval castles were interesting and beautiful buildings. They were well and stoutly built, and many of them are standing today.

Far more beautiful than the castles were the churches. Until about this time the churches were built much as in Roman times. They had round arched windows and doors. The walls were thick in order to support the roof. Now the planners of churches began to find ways to make taller buildings with thinner walls. These architects, or planners, discovered that roofs could be supported by strengthening the walls on the outside. Such outside supports against the walls were called *flying buttresses*. The builders carried out this idea so skillfully that churches and cathedrals of marvelous beauty were built. They appeared first in the cities of northern France and then spread gradually all over Europe.

This style of building is now called *Gothic*. The people of Italy first used the word Gothic to describe this kind of building. By calling the churches Gothic they meant to make fun of them. But the name has remained, and to us Gothic means a very beautiful and rich way of building.

Because the walls had added support, Gothic buildings could have large windows. The glassmakers made small pieces of glass in beautiful, clear colors. These they fastened together with strips of lead, to help to strengthen the window and to make designs and pictures. Sculptors added richly carved doors and screens, stone figures and flowers. Rich and poor gave of their money, their strength, and their time to build these churches. The work on some of them continued for forty or fifty or even a hundred years. People found pleasure and satisfaction in these beautiful buildings. Their guild halls, town halls, and homes also became more beautiful.

The love of beauty and the desire to learn were growing. These two deep human feelings often go together. In the early medieval days there had been no schools for ordinary people. But the growth of towns helped to advance education. Merchants and craftsmen could carry on their business better if they could read and write and keep accounts. They started schools to teach boys reading and writing and arithmetic. In addition to these, some of the schools connected with the cathedrals came to be important.

Travel was easier now, and life in Europe

was becoming more comfortable and pleasant. Now and then some man of learning would appear in a town and give lectures, or talks. Interested students at once gathered round him and formed a sort of class, very much as Greek youths had gathered about Socrates or Plato. At times a number of teachers would stay at one place, and students could attend the lectures of several teachers.

Out of such beginnings and from the cathedral schools grew universities. At Bologna in Italy was the university most famous for the teaching of law. The University of Paris was known for lectures on philosophy and religion. Salerno in Italy was famous for medicine. Other great universities sprang up to carry on the work of education in the same way. There was a university at Vienna, another at Heidelberg, and another at Oxford. Find these cities on the map on pages 110 and 111. Our universities today, like these early ones, are places where students and teachers can live and work and learn together.



Travel became easier, not only in Europe, but also in Asia. We have not yet read much about Asia. The people of Europe during the Middle Ages knew very little about it. During the Crusades they began to hear that there was such a place, and that fine silks and spices and jewels came from there. Then a few courageous people dared to travel eastward into those far regions. The most amazing story is that of Marco Polo.

Marco Polo was the son of a merchant of Venice. When he was a little boy his father and his uncle sailed with their ship to Constantinople. They decided in Constantinople that they would like to visit the countries where the beautiful things they bought came from, and so they set forth toward the East. After they had been away fourteen years they returned to Venice with strange stories of the distant country which we now call China. Here they had stayed at the court of the Great Khan. They were much surprised at the high civilization of his people.

The Great Khan was the ruler of the Mongols. These people had conquered China and all central Asia, from the Pacific Ocean westward to the Black Sea. Look at the map on page 143 and see this vast empire. The Great Khan, whose name was Kublai, had asked the Polo brothers to return to China. Marco Polo, who was now seventeen years old, persuaded his father and uncle to take him too. They started off in 1271.

The three Polos journeyed eastward. They went by ship to the eastern shore of the Mediterranean Sea, and on foot, and on horseback, across Asia. They traveled across wide deserts and through fertile valleys. They climbed high, lonely mountains, guided by dark-bearded men who knew the passes through the mountains. Sometimes they were attacked by robbers. But their journey was safe most of the way, for they carried with them a golden tablet, a kind of ticket, given them by the Great Khan. The Mongol ruler was so power-





The routes of the Polos and the Mongol empire

ful that his protection was enough for any traveler through his empire. The map above shows the route the Polos traveled through the lands of the Mongols.

These Mongols were nomads, wandering barbarian fighters. They were horsemen, who carried their felt tents with them. They lived on the wide grassy steppes, or high plains, moving from place to place in order to find pasture for their horses. When they conquered the cities of settled people, they sometimes destroyed them. But usually they left the people alone and made them pay tribute, or taxes, in goods and gold and silver. By this means the khans, or lords, grew powerful and rich, and the Great Khan was richest and most powerful of all. His court was in China, near the Pacific coast, in the city which we now call Peiping. After journeying for two years the Polos reached this city, and here they were royally received by Kublai Khan.

Kublai Khan took a great liking to Marco Polo. The boy had been taught to read and write, and he had taken careful notes of all that he had seen on his journey. Kublai saw that Marco Polo observed carefully and told things well. He made him his own special official and sent him all over China, so that Marco might come back to Peiping and tell him about people and places. Marco Polo learned the languages of people in different regions and made friends everywhere. In his mind, even more than in his notebook, he stored up a surprising knowledge of countries and peoples.

After some years the Polos longed to see their home again. They returned in slow-sailing vessels, around the coast of China, along the coast of India, and across the Arabian Sea to the Persian Gulf. Trace the route of this journey on the map above. The Polos had been away from Venice for almost twenty-five years.

Marco Polo took an active part in the life of his city. Venice and Genoa were still fighting over the Mediterranean trade. The fleet of Venice was defeated in a battle, and Marco Polo was taken prisoner. While he was in prison in Genoa, he told the story of his adventures to a fellow prisoner. This man wrote down Marco's story. Shortly after the book was finished Marco Polo was set free, and returned to Venice. But his friends always refused to believe some of the strange things he told about his travels.

Marco Polo's book was very important. It was printed and read in Europe. Columbus owned a copy, and made many notes in it when he was trying to think of new ways to reach India. People before Marco Polo's time had known very little about the lands of the East. This book was one of the things which made them eager to find those lands, as we shall see in the next chapter. You can read the story of Marco Polo yourself. It is interesting to us because it shows what was going on in Asia during the Middle Ages in Europe.

The New Birth of Art and Learning

Italy led the way. It is not surprising that the people of Italy were the first to take a new interest in art and learning. Even during the Dark Ages the people of Italy were interested in the literature and art of the Romans. In the fifteenth century Venice and Genoa were great centers of trade. In these and other cities in northern Italy lived rich noblemen who built handsome houses and stately gardens. Perhaps the most famous of these noble families was the Medici family of Florence, who made their city a brilliant center of art. These wealthy people had plenty of time to enjoy pictures and books, and money to buy them. They encouraged learned men. They hired artists to spend their time making beautiful things for their homes. They gave artists great sums to paint their portraits for them, to paint pictures of people and stories from the Bible, or to make beautiful pictures on the walls and ceilings of their palaces and public buildings.

Men became more interested in the art and learning of the Greeks and Romans. As this new interest spread across Europe, thousands of eager students traveled to Italy to study. Young artists flocked to the cities of northern Italy to examine and study the paintings of the great artists, to work for them, mixing colors and helping with parts of their pictures. Then they brought new ideas back to their own countries. An awakening such as this was almost like a new birth of civilization. People call it by a French word, *Renaissance*, which means just that, a "new birth." The newborn interest in learning and in making beautiful things grew in all the western countries.

It was a time of many famous artists. One of the most famous, Raphael, began to paint while still a boy, taught by his father and other artists. Living in the centers of art in Italy, he was always eager to learn more and make his painting better. He studied all the good paintings he saw, and gathered the best of the new ideas into his own work. While still very young he painted pictures and frescoes for great churches. Frescoes are paintings made directly on plastered walls. We know Raphael best for his paintings of the Madonna, the mother of Christ, copies of which you may have seen.

Another Italian artist who lived about the same time as Raphael was Michelangelo. He was a big fellow, full of energy and ideas, a



Michelangelo created many magnificent statues in his workshop

sculptor as well as a painter. The fame of his statues and frescoes spread to Rome, and the Pope sent for him to paint the walls and the ceiling of his own special chapel, which he had just had built. For years Michelangelo worked at the ceiling of this Sistine Chapel, painting on it pictures of the creation of the world, and other Bible scenes. To do this he had to lie flat on his back on a high platform under the ceiling. No one was allowed in the room with him except the Pope himself. Michelangelo lived to finish this task, and to paint on the end wall of the chapel a famous picture called *The Last Judgment*.

One of the most gifted of all Italian artists was Leonardo da Vinci, a master whose work the young Raphael studied. Most of his paintings have been lost or destroyed, but we have two of the finest. One of these is the portrait of a beautiful woman with a mysterious smile, called the *Mona Lisa*. The other is the famous picture, *The Last Supper*, showing Christ with his disciples. But Leonardo da Vinci was not only a great painter. He was a sculptor, a poet, an architect. More than this, he was an inventor and a scientist. He made designs for machines which were far beyond the understanding of the people of his time. He even made a plan for a flying machine!

What was the meaning of the new birth? Usually the word *Renaissance*, or new birth, is used to mean the quickening of interest in art and learning. But this new birth also means that the spirit of freedom was growing stronger. The spread of learning and the growth of freedom are often closely connected. For art and learning show that people's minds are active, and people with active minds usually want freedom. Education and freedom are likely to help each other wherever they appear.

Freedom from ignorance is a most important form of freedom, and it often brings other forms along with it. Understanding *why* and *how* is sometimes the first step toward getting other forms of freedom. When we think of the awakening at the end of the Middle Ages, let us think of learning coming back, and the desire for freedom beginning to stir.

What marks the end of the Middle Ages? It is hard to say just when the new interest in learning began to appear in barbarian Europe, because this came so gradually. There was even great learning during the darkest days of the Middle Ages, but it was not widespread among the people, nor did learned men eagerly ask why and how. They were often content to give old answers to old questions. We chose the year 1100 to mark the end of the early Middle Ages, because that was about the time the Crusades began, and the Crusades did much to help the change. Now what shall we choose to mark the end of the Middle Ages? This period did not end suddenly, of course. But in the years between 1400 and 1500 certain very important things happened. If we wish to find a place to draw a line, we can take that century, the fifteenth century, as the one which ended the Middle Ages. For the fifteenth century truly brought the beginning of different ways of living to the countries of western Europe. The fifteenth century brought the Renaissance.

Three things happened in this century which made a great difference to Europe. *First, printing with movable type was invented,* and books began to come into wide use. *Second, Constantinople was captured by the Turks. Third, Columbus made his famous voyage westward and discovered a new world.* Let us see why these things were so important.

Books came into wide use. Books made by hand were few and they cost a great deal. This was because it took so long to make each one. As education spread, men tried to make cheaper books. In order to do so, they needed paper and printing, and both of these we owe to China. Hundreds of years before this the Chinese had learned to make paper from rags. The Arabs learned this from the Chinese, and in turn carried the knowledge across Africa into Spain. So people in Europe learned from the Arabs how to make paper.

The Chinese had for a long time made books by block printing, and this too was tried in Europe. All the words on one page were carved on a block of wood. This block was inked and from it many pages were printed. But even this was a slow way to make books. It took a long while to carve a block for each page.

A German, Johann Gutenberg, thought of carving each letter separately and using it over and over again. He tried to make letters of wood, and found that wood was too soft and did not last long enough. Then he began working to make letters out of metal. His dream was to make enough letters, or type, to print copies of the Bible. At last he succeeded in making *movable type* and a printing press. His Bible was finally printed about 1450. Soon books were being printed in many cities, sold in the shops, and read by the people. Books, as we know, tell us about other people's deeds and thoughts, and help to make us think for ourselves. This is what books did in those days when people were able to have them for the first time.

New languages and new literature were developing. While people were studying the writings of the past, something else had been happening. Poets and storytellers were writing in their own language. The Latin language of Rome had once been the language spoken all over western Europe, and though changed it was still the language used by the Church and by scholars. Now there were many languages. The speech of the Teutonic barbarians had been greatly changed by the speech of the people they conquered.

In Italy the speech of the barbarians almost disappeared into the Latin of the Romans, and

gradually became the Italian language. In Spain the language of the West Goths mingled with Latin to make the beginnings of the Spanish language. Many Spanish words, also, were taken from the Arabs, whose culture had spread throughout Spain. In France the speech of the Franks mingled with Latin to make the French language. These three languages—Italian, Spanish, and French—have a great deal of Latin, the Roman language, in them. That is why we call them Romance languages. If you have studied Latin, you will find them all easier to learn.

The languages spoken beyond the old boundaries of the Roman Empire were not so much changed by the Latin. We call these the Germanic languages. They include the tongues spoken by the different tribes of Northmen as well as by the tribes who lived in the region now called Germany. The Angles and Saxons belonged to this group, and they took a Germanic language with them when they migrated to Britain.

The language which grew up in England, however, was very much of a mixture. The Northmen who settled in Normandy had learned the French language. This was the language which William the Conqueror and his nobles spoke. When they lived with the conquered Anglo-Saxons, each learned words from the other, and this mixture of languages made our English language. That is why we have so many words with the same, or nearly the same, meaning. Some of these words came from one language, and some from another. The word *chase* comes from the Norman French, but we get *hunt* from the Anglo-Saxon. *Kind* comes from Anglo-Saxon, and *gentle* comes from French.



In all of these languages there was almost no literature for awhile, except songs and stories. These were sung and told among groups of people, but were often not written down. When books were printed, these first bits of literature were put into print. Learning and reading had belonged mostly to the monks and priests who knew Latin. Now poets and storytellers began to write in their own language for the people who spoke and understood that language. This was a very important part of the new birth of learning, the beginning of literature in the new languages of Europe.

Constantinople, the eastern capital of the Roman Empire, was captured by the Turks. When Rome fell into the power of the barbarians, you recall, learned men and artists fled to the East. They took with them all the books they could save. Many of them went to live in Constantinople, which became a center of learning where artists and thinkers and teachers lived and worked.

Now, almost a thousand years later, the opposite thing happened. Constantinople was captured at last in 1453 by the Moslem Turks, who had long wished to possess this great and rich city. Again there was a migration of artists, scientists, and teachers. This time they fled westward to Italy, and Italy was ready to receive them. From Constantinople they took with them to Italy their Latin and Greek books and manuscripts, many of which the people of the West had never seen.

These artists and scholars encouraged the growth of the new learning. These learned men were welcomed by the universities everywhere, and learning spread more rapidly than ever. People were eager to know the wisdom of the Greek philosophers and the thinking of Roman jurists. They wished to read the poetry and history of Greek and Latin writers.

A search was begun for manuscripts. Some had been thrust away out of sight and neglected, but were found again in castles, in warehouses, in huts, in old churches. People began to collect manuscripts for their libraries. Lorenzo de' Medici, of Florence, sent searchers to the Eastern cities to find and buy old manuscripts for his collection.

These manuscripts were written in Latin or Greek. All the educated people of Europe, of course, knew Latin, which had been the language of the Church and of all learned writing throughout the Middle Ages. But very few people in Europe knew Greek, and there was plenty of work for the learned teachers from Constantinople in the schools and universities of western Europe.

A third great event which helped to end the Middle Ages was the discovery of the New World. Columbus made his famous voyage in 1492, near the end of the fifteenth century. At the close of that century we find ourselves in the beginning of the period we call the modern age. The world itself seemed a different kind of place in which to live. It was slowly becoming a world of exploration and discovery, of science and invention. New nations were growing up in Europe, and new freedoms were growing in each nation. In the next chapter we shall read about these new nations and new freedoms.

Study Questions

1. How did trade help the growth of towns?
2. What Italian towns became wealthy cities because of trade?
3. How did the building of churches change, and what was the new kind of building called?
4. How did the towns help education?
5. How did people in the towns gain more freedom?
6. How did universities begin?
7. Why was the journey of Marco Polo important?

8. What did the great artists and teachers of Italy do for Europe?

9. What do we mean when we use the word *Renaissance*?

10. What three important events in the fifteenth century helped to awaken Europe and bring still greater changes?

Thinking about Education

1. How did learning and freedom help each other toward the end of the Middle Ages?

2. How did the guilds help education?

3. How does the beginning of universities remind you of happenings in the ancient world?

4. Do students today ever choose their university because of some especially noted teacher? Why?

5. How does education help people to understand the value of freedom?

6. Why is education especially important in a democratic country such as ours?

Class Activities

1. If there is a museum in your town, find out if it has any examples of old manuscript books which the class can go to see. Some of the members of the class may enjoy making manuscripts. Choose some poem or perhaps an Aesop fable, print it, and decorate it with colored designs.

2. Visit the nearest library and ask for copies of pictures, or books containing pictures, painted by the great Italian painters of the Renaissance. Perhaps you may find copies of some of the paintings of Raphael, Michelangelo, or Leonardo da Vinci. Talk over those you like best, and decide why.

3. Look for pictures of Gothic buildings. Do the pictures help you to see how they are built? Ask your teacher if someone may report to the class on the making of stained-glass windows in the Middle Ages and today.

4. The class can plan a visit to the printing room of a newspaper. Before going, a committee should be appointed to find information and report on early printing presses, so that you can compare modern methods with those used by Gutenberg.

5. You learned about guilds and apprentices in this chapter. Perhaps your teacher can invite someone to tell the class about modern unions and how workers are trained today. Then you can compare the two systems.

6. Appoint a committee to report on life in a town in the late Middle Ages. Find out how it was governed and what kinds of services were given the people of the town. Then compare it with the government of your own town or city.

Correct Endings

From the three endings given below each of the incomplete sentences in this exercise choose the right one. Then copy the complete sentences in your notebook.

1. Young men flocked to Bologna in Italy
   - to study law.
   - to see Raphael's paintings.
   - to buy silks from China.

2. The Renaissance means
   - the dawning.
   - the awakening.
   - the new birth.

3. The frescoes of Italy were
   - manuscripts.
   - pirates.
   - wall paintings on plaster.

4. Johann Gutenberg
   - made the first book.
   - first printed with movable type.
   - invented paper.

5. Flying buttresses were built to
   - protect a castle from attack.
   - make homes more comfortable.
   - give added support to cathedral walls.

6. A guild was
   - a group of church leaders.
   - a club of men who worked at the same trade.
   - a town council.

8. From the Middle Ages to Our Own Day



A Story · "There's No Use Fighting Change"

Ned came home late one Sunday afternoon. Just as he reached his cottage a man came stamping out. It was Mr. Wright. Ned knew him well, as he often came to sell yarn to Ned's father, Goodman Gray, the weaver. He was talking to Ned's father now, and his voice was angry.

"No, begging your pardon, I'll not stay for tea! I tell you it's a crime, that's what it is! It has got to be stopped, and that at once! Taking the bread out of a decent man's mouth! Turning life upside down in an honest village! And you, neighbor, if you take no part with us, your ruin be on your own head! I bid you good-day!"

With that the angry man stamped away,

not even seeing Ned, who slipped quietly through the door.

"Father, what did Mr. Wright say?" he asked.

Goodman Gray puffed silently on his pipe. He walked across the room and stood before his loom, gazing at it silently. Dame Gray placed the loaf and knife on the table and set out the cups. The kettle murmured peacefully on the fire.

"He wanted me to go to a meeting in the town," answered the weaver, at last. "I'll go to no meeting."

"What is it about, Father?"

"It's about Atkinson's new mill."

"I've been down there," said Ned eagerly. "The boys and I wanted to see the machines that run by steam. We wanted to look in the window, but a fellow chased us away."

"You stay away, boy," said his father. "You may get into trouble. The spinners from the villages around here have threatened Atkinson. He pays no heed, of course. Why should he? He has the right to spin with a machine, or a dozen of them, if he wishes. He has a right to hire weavers to come and work in his shop, too. It's no affair of mine."

"Why was Mr. Wright so angry?" asked the boy.

"Well, he's lost some of his customers. Wright's business, you know, is to buy yarn from the village spinners, and sell it to us weavers. Now Atkinson is hiring weavers to work there in his mill. The new spinning machine he has can turn out as much thread in one day as your mother can spin on her wheel in a summer. It can turn out all the yarn needed by the weavers who have gone to work at the mill, and they don't want yarn from Wright any longer. Wright is losing trade. The spinners are all excited too, and they and Wright together want to run the new factory out of town. You see, the factory has made the price of thread go down, and that makes it hard on the village spinners. Last month some factory over beyond Leeds was burned down. Folk that earn their bread by the spinning wheel take it pretty hard to see these new ways come into their own village."

"Would they burn the new mill, Father?" breathed Ned.

"I think not," said his father. "Wright and the spinners will make speeches and write letters to the House of Commons. That's what the meeting is for. But they'll get nowhere. If change is coming, Ned, change will come. New days, new ways. I've seen the threads these new machines make, down at Atkinson's mill. They are smooth and firm. After all, what is wrong in using steam to do work if it's good work? It's hard for some of us to change, but there's no use fighting change."

He fingered the cloth in the loom, then sighed and turned toward the door.

"I think I'll just walk across the field," he said.

"Come then, and have your tea first," said his wife, "and bother your head no more about this business. We'll go on as we've done. Cloth is cloth, and none better than your own. There's more than one would change places with this Atkinson they're threatening now."

"Ay, that's a true word," said Goodman Gray, sitting down and taking his steaming cup of tea. "We'll see more changes than this. Ned is a good worker. Happen he'll have a mill of his own one day."

"That I will, too," said Ned, with his mouth half full of bread and butter. He looked at the loom thoughtfully. "Father, if a machine can spin thread, why can't another machine weave cloth?"

"There it is, my boy! Who knows? You may live to see that very thing come about. Changes make changes, that's what I always say."

Slow changes bring some results. Through the thousand years of the Middle Ages change in most parts of Europe took place very slowly. During the next five hundred years, however, changes came more swiftly, and very surprising changes they were. This period is the five hundred years from the middle of the fifteenth century to the middle of the twentieth century, our own time. In the middle of the fifteenth century, 1453, the Turks captured Constantinople, and at about the same time Johann Gutenberg produced the first book in Europe printed with movable type. Then during the last years of the same century Columbus made his famous voyage to the New World. These were among the things which closed the Middle Ages and opened the modern age, an age of new discoveries, new inventions, and growing freedom.

One of the most important changes was the beginning and growth of nations in Europe. Nations had begun to take form gradually in the late Middle Ages. There were no real nations in Europe in the days of the Roman Empire. After the barbarian invasions and during most of the Middle Ages, there were still no real nations. People were not thought of as Frenchmen, or Italians, or Englishmen. They were nobles or serfs. People living in different regions had little in common but the Christian religion and obedience to the Pope in Rome.

The nations of Europe were formed first by the kings. Then several things helped to make the new nations grow stronger. When a feudal lord became strong enough to extend his power over other lords, he sometimes called himself a king. But his power was never secure, and he had to guard against two things. He had to keep his own nobles from taking away his power and setting up another king in his place, and he had to prevent any other king from capturing part of his kingdom. A king always tried to pass on his crown and his power to his son, or to some member of his family. Each king tried to make the government stronger than it had been.

England was the first country to become a nation. It was in 1066, during the Middle Ages, that William the Conqueror and his Norman lords invaded England. He was so strong a leader that he kept his power over his nobles, and prevented any other ruler from seizing any part of England. Thus he helped to make England a nation.

France was the next country to become a nation. For a long while the kings of England owned land in France. The French kings did not like this, and for centuries there were quarrels and battles between the French and the English. A time came when one war followed another for more than one hundred years. Toward the end of this time the French were in great difficulty, and it looked as though the country could not hold together. Then something strange happened. It is a story the French love to tell.

Joan of Arc was a peasant girl in a small village in eastern France. She was very unhappy about the way the war was going. One day she told her parents that she had been sitting at her spinning and had heard voices telling her that she must save France. Joan made her way to court, and asked the son of the king for an army to lead against the English. She was so much in earnest that he gave her a suit of shining armor, a white horse, and a white banner. At the head of her army she marched to the city of Orleans, which was surrounded by English soldiers. The French soldiers were filled with new hope, and began to fight again, eagerly and bravely. Finally



the English were driven from the city. Perhaps you may find and read the whole story of the little country girl who led a French army.

During these long years of warfare the French people fought side by side, and the feeling grew that they belonged to one nation rather than to different lords. At the end of the Hundred Years' War, in the middle of the fifteenth century, the French took away from the English king all his land in France. And by this time France, too, had become a strong nation.

The nature of the land itself helped to form the European nations. Countries can be more easily defended if they have what we call "natural boundaries." The first countries to become nations were those whose lands could be protected from enemies by mountains or by the sea. Turn over to the map on pages 154 and 155 and see how many nations there are in Europe today. The first nations to appear and grow strong were those along the Atlantic coast: England, France, Portugal, Spain, and the little country of the Netherlands. Look carefully at their locations, then turn to the map on pages 212 and 213 and notice their natural boundaries.

There was another reason why these nations were the first to grow strong. The Atlantic Ocean, washing their shores, invited their people to seek and explore the highways of the sea. Let us see how exploration made the nations strong and brought more changes to Europe.


NATIONS OF EUROPE TODAY
LEGEND
City Population
London Over 1,000,000
Bucharest 500,000 - 1,000,000
Venice 100,000 - 500,000
Corinth Under 100,000
0 285
1 inch equals 285 miles
ICELAND
SHETLAND IS.
ORKNEY IS.
HEBRIDES
BRITISH ISLES
SCOTLAND
NORTHERN IRELAND
Glasgow
Edinburgh
GREAT BRITAIN
Dublin
IRELAND
Irish Sea
Liverpool
WALES
ENGLAND
London
English Channel
North Sea
Bergen
Oslo
NORWAY
DENMARK
Copenhagen
Kiel Canal
Zuider Zee
NETHERLANDS
Amsterdam
The Hague
Bremen
Hamburg
GERMANY
Berlin
Elbe R.
Leipzig
BELGIUM
Brussels
LUX.
Rhine R.
Meuse R.
Seine
Paris
Loire River
R.
Nürnberg
Prague
CZE
Danube River
Munich
Vienna
AUSTRIA
SWITZERLAND
Bern
Lyon
R.
FRANCE
Bay of Biscay
Bordeaux
Garonne R.
Rhone
Milan
Venice
Po River
Genoa
Marseille
Florence
Arno
ITALY
Adriatic S
YUG
CORSICA
Rome
Naples
SARDINIA
SICILY
Ebro River
Barcelona
Madrid
Tagus R.
Lisbon
PORTUGAL
SPAIN
Guadalquivir R.
Valencia
BALEARIC IS.
Strait of Gibraltar
Mediterr
Atlantic Ocean
AFRICA
70°
60°
55°
50°
45°
40°
35°
30°
25°
10°
5°
0°
5°
10°


70°
Arctic
Ocean
ARCTIC CIRCLE
Ob River
REPUBLIC
SOCIALIST
Irtysh River
FEDERATED
Tobol River
REPUBLICS
KARELO-FINNISH S.S.R.
Leningrad
Volga River
SOVIET
RUSSIAN
Magnitogorsk
SOCIALIST
Moscow
Ural River
KAZAKH S.S.R.
WHITE RUSSIAN S.S.R.
UNION OF SOVIET
Dnepr River
Don River
Aral Sea
Donets R
Stalingrad
UZBEK S.S.R.
UKRAINIAN S.S.R.
MOLDAVIAN S.S.R.
Odessa
Sea of Azov
Caspian Sea
TURKMEN S.S.R.
RUMANIA
Bucharest
Constanta
Danube R
Black Sea
GEORGIAN S.S.R.
Batum
AZERBAIDZHAN S.S.R.
Baku
ARMENIAN S.S.R.
Sofia
BULGARIA
Istanbul
Ankara
TURKEY
Tehran
Tigris River
Aegean Sea
Athens
Adana
Aleppo
SYRIA
Euphrates River
Baghdad
IRAN
RHODES
CYPRUS
CRETE
LEBANON
Beirut
Damascus
IRAQ
ISRAEL
Tel Aviv
Jerusalem
Amman
HASHEMITE JORDAN
SAUDI-ARABIA
Persian Gulf
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Europe Goes Exploring

It was trade that started men exploring the world. The trade routes to the Far East were long and difficult, and goods brought by these routes were very expensive. The great highway of trade for Europe was the Mediterranean Sea, and Italian merchants controlled most of this shipping. Merchants from Spain and Portugal had long been dissatisfied, and wanted a greater share in the profits of eastern trade. When the Turks captured Constantinople, Europe fared even worse. Not even the merchants of Venice and Genoa could be sure of getting the goods they wanted. Prices rose higher and higher.

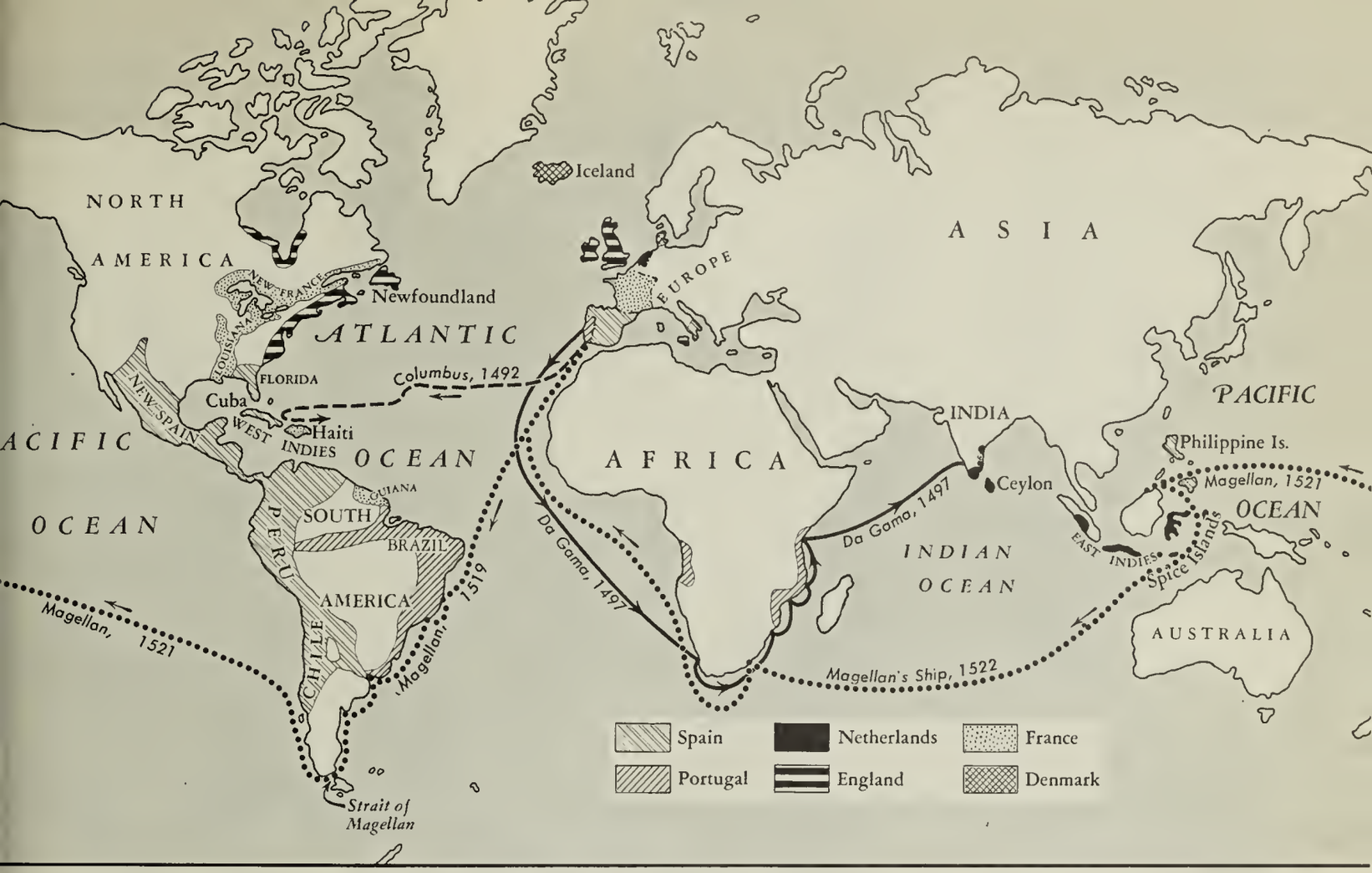
People in Europe wanted spices. Kings and merchants alike began to wonder where the spice trees grew. Was there not some other way to reach the spice lands? From the Arabs other sailors had learned an important secret, the secret of the compass, the needle pointing always toward the north. With this little needle to help them to steer their ships, sea captains from Europe started out into the Atlantic in search of the lands of silk and spice.

The first of these daring explorers went from Portugal. Find the little country of Portugal on your map. Much of it is a low plain lying along the Atlantic Ocean. Early in the fifteenth century, sea captains of Portugal began taking their ships southward, along the coast of Africa. Ship after ship was lost, but some of the captains came back with maps to show how far they had gone. They believed that if they went far enough they would find India and the Spice Islands.

Columbus, believing that the world was round, asked the king of Portugal for a ship to sail toward the West to reach the East. But the king of Portugal was sure his ships would find the way around Africa sooner or later, and he refused to help Columbus. That was why Columbus turned to Spain, where Queen Isabella was persuaded to give him ships. Then in just a few years great discoveries were made.

Magellan's ship visited the Marianas in the Pacific Ocean





Europeans explored the world and founded colonies

Three famous voyages. Every American knows the story of the discovery of the New World by Columbus. When he came back in triumph, people in Spain believed that he had found the western way to India and the nearby islands.

Five years later Vasco da Gama, a Portuguese sea captain, sailed his ship around Africa, and made his way east across the Indian Ocean to India.

Ferdinand Magellan, another Portuguese, turned to Spain for money and ships. His was the longest voyage of all. He knew, as everyone did in a few years, that Columbus had not found the way to India. The islands Columbus had discovered were later called the West Indies, but they were not near India. Across the Atlantic went Magellan, southward along the coast of South America, then westward through the strait which was later named for him, and on across the wide Pacific Ocean. He dropped anchor in the group of islands in the Pacific which today we call the Marianas. One of them is our great air base island of Guam. Leaving these islands behind, Magellan sailed westward and landed on one of the islands of the Philippine group. On a tiny island he was killed in a fight between native tribes. His own voyage was over, but one of his ships went on. Sailing among the many islands of the East Indies, it made its way westward around Africa and reached Spain at last with all the spices it could carry. Magellan's ship had sailed around the world. The people of Europe had found two ways to the lands of the East by sea. Above is a map of the world on which you can trace the routes of these three great explorers.



Ships brought goods to Europe from all over the world

Men of many countries were soon sailing over both routes to the East. Spain and Portugal had a head start. Spain built a great empire in the New World, in what we now call Latin America. Her kings grew rich with silver from Mexico and gold from Peru.

Portugal grew rich, too. Vasco da Gama had found the way around Africa to India, and the ships of Portugal were the first to reach the Spice Islands from the west. The docks at Lisbon, the capital and greatest seaport of Portugal, were piled high with sacks of spices from these islands, and bales of silk and cotton goods from India. Sailing ships from England, France, and the Netherlands then carried these goods to the growing ports of northern Europe.

Soon French ships, English ships, and Dutch ships (those from the Netherlands) were making their own way to the lands of the East. Some of the countries of Europe planted colonies on the islands of the East Indies, and along the shores of India and Africa. Such colonies meant trade, and trade

meant wealth. The nations of western Europe grew stronger through their growing foreign trade and their colonies.

Trade with overseas colonies grew rapidly. Every merchant who could buy a ship entered this prosperous trade. The people of Europe eagerly bought the new things to eat and drink that were shipped to them from all over the world. They enjoyed coffee from Arabia, tea from China, and cocoa from Africa. Some merchants became especially interested in the growing trade in coffee. If coffee would grow in Arabia, they asked, why would it not grow elsewhere?

The merchants of Holland lost no time in planting coffee in the East Indies, and found that it grew very well there. The Portuguese started great coffee plantations in Brazil. New vegetables and fruits such as potatoes, tomatoes, maize, cane sugar, and pineapples also came from colonial lands.

The profits of overseas trade were so great that everybody wished to have a part in it. Groups of men put their money together to buy ships or start a trading company. Banks and special companies were organized to develop foreign trade, and a great many people bought shares in such enterprises.

But this new trade was not carried on peacefully. The kings of Europe were still fighting each other for wealth and power. When two countries were at war, each tried to take the other's trading colonies. Many a battle was fought on the high seas, and many a ship full of treasure was captured or sunk. Each king wanted all the land he could get, because he believed new colonies would mean wealth and power.

All over the world lands were taken by the strong nations of Europe to be their colonies. The map on page 157 will show you most of these colonies. By looking carefully you can tell to which country each colony belonged. Some of them have since become independent countries, and we shall read about them further on in this book. Exploration and trade, you see, helped some of the countries of Europe to become strong nations. It was no wonder that national feeling grew stronger among the people during the years between 1500 and 1600.

The most bitter rivals of all were Spain and England. Wealth from the New World had made Spain rich and powerful. The Spaniards had a great many ships, and the king of Spain called himself master of the sea. This did not please the English nobles or Queen Elizabeth, who ruled England during the last half of the sixteenth century. Some wealthy Englishmen bought ships of their own and set out for trade and adventure on the sea. They attacked Spanish ships whenever they met them, and often captured the cargoes of gold that they carried.

The Spanish king therefore built a great fleet and planned to destroy the English navy. He called his fleet the *Invincible Armada*, or unbeatable fleet. More than one hundred large ships sailed north from Spain into the English Channel.

The English were ready for them. They had no great war fleet, but every English vessel was armed, even the fishing boats. They let the Spanish ships pass into the Channel, and then attacked them from the rear. Being smaller, the English ships could turn better and sail faster, and many of them were below the guns of the higher-built Spanish ships. There was a fierce battle in the Channel, and a number of Spanish ships were sunk. But it was the weather which really conquered the proud Armada. A storm sprang up which forced some of the Spanish ships onto the coast of Holland, where they were wrecked. Gales carried the rest northward through the stormy North Sea, and most of them were destroyed. It



The defeat of the Spanish Armada

took months for the few that remained to sail around the British Isles and make their way back to Spain with their starving sailors.

The Age of Queen Elizabeth. No longer could Spain keep British and Dutch vessels out of the South Atlantic. England was an island kingdom and needed to trade with other nations. Also the English were planting colonies across the seas and these colonies had to be protected. The English leaders had learned that if they wanted to keep their power they must always have a strong fleet. This period of exploration, adventure, and triumph was the beginning of England's greatness. England became a nation of seafaring men, the greatest sea power of the world.

Queen Elizabeth ruled England for forty-five years. Like the Age of Pericles in Athens, and the Age of Augustus in Rome, this was a golden age in English life and literature. Ever since Roman times the town of London, on the River Thames, had been the most important

seaport of Britain. It was the center of England's life. Shops lined the narrow streets and broom-sellers, muffin men, and fishwives cried their wares. London Bridge reached across the Thames like another street, with shops along both sides.

Good trade brought good times. Queen Elizabeth and her nobles enjoyed music and drama and books. Plays had always been given in the yard of an inn or in a church. But about this time the first theaters were built. Wealthy or noble persons were provided with seats, but common people stood and watched the play from the pit. This was the place on the ground floor in front of the stage, where standing room cost very little.

It was during this time that William Shakespeare lived. Many people think that he is the greatest writer of plays who has ever lived. Shakespeare took old tales written in different countries, and made them into plays. He also used stories from English history. Some were given before the royal court, but all of them were acted in the theaters, where noblemen, merchants, and ordinary working people saw





Attending a play by Shakespeare

them. His plays contain so much wisdom and beauty, and the people in them are so true to life, that they never grow old. About a hundred and fifty years later the English authors Charles and Mary Lamb wrote a book called *Tales from Shakespeare*. In this book you can read the stories Shakespeare told in his dramas. These are beautiful and entertaining stories, but the words of Shakespeare himself are still more beautiful.

The discovery of new continents increased the study of natural science. Scholars and educated men were eager to know about flowers, animals, and birds in far parts of the world. Scientific societies were formed. Often such a society would send a group of scientists on a vessel bound for distant shores. The scientists were told to bring back charts showing the geography of the new lands and examples of the animals and plants found there, especially any herbs which were useful in medicine. This awakened a new interest in scientific experiments, and started discussion among men in universities and other centers of learning.

Other sciences also made progress. In different parts of Europe, quiet men studied long and earnestly to learn more about the world around them.

The people in Europe still had little freedom. The rulers gave commands and were obeyed. They collected taxes, and usually got the money they wanted, even if it was hard for the people to pay.

In many of the countries most of the people were serfs, working on lands which belonged to the lords. When money came into use, the serfs began slowly to win their freedom. Those who paid a sum of money to their lord were no longer forced to work on certain days for him. But it was hard to save enough money for the payment. Even after a serf was free, he still had to pay the rent of his land, in money or in what he produced. This kept the serfs poor, and there were hungry and miserable people all over Europe.

Towns were very important in the growth of freedom. You will remember that the guilds taught men to co-operate in making and enforcing rules. The same guild members had a chance to practice this co-operation in governing their towns, making the laws, and choosing their officials. But there was a still more important way in which the towns helped the growth of freedom. For the people of the towns had a great deal to do with bringing freedom to Europe by breaking up the old feudal system.

In early feudal Europe there had been only two important classes, the nobles and the serfs. But as the towns became larger and busier, the townspeople began to be more important in European life, and gradually formed a new class. At first the merchants and the guild leaders were content with the special privileges they had received from the nobles in their town charters. But they soon saw that, although they were allowed to govern their own towns, it was the nobles and the kings who really ran the country. The people in the towns and the growing cities felt that this was unfair. They wanted more freedom. They wanted more to say about votes, taxes, and many other things. They felt that the country belonged to them, just as much as to the nobles. They wanted a strong central government to enforce order. But they also wanted a part in that government. As the cities became stronger and richer, their people were able to win more rights and freedoms, as we shall see when we read of the growth of freedom in England and France.

How freedom grew in England. In medieval England, as in the rest of Europe, there were three main classes of people: the nobles, the townsmen, and the serfs. The most powerful class was the nobles. They owned almost all the land in England, outside of the towns, and the church leaders belonged to this class.

It was the nobles who began the fight for freedom, in 1215. It happened in this way. King John needed money, and he tried to get it from the nobles by heavy taxes not allowed by law. This made the nobles angry. They determined to weaken the king's power. So they gathered their fighting men, made war upon the king, and defeated him in battle. Then they wrote a paper, called the *Magna Charta*, or Great Charter, which they forced him to sign. In this charter the king promised several things. One was that he would lay no taxes without the "common consent of our kingdom." Another was that no free man should be "imprisoned or banished or in any way destroyed except by the judgment of his peers [meaning his equals] or by the law of the land." After John had agreed to this charter, in the year 1215, the royal seal was placed upon it, and it became part of the law, a great charter of liberty. It meant that the king, as well as the people, must obey the law of the land.

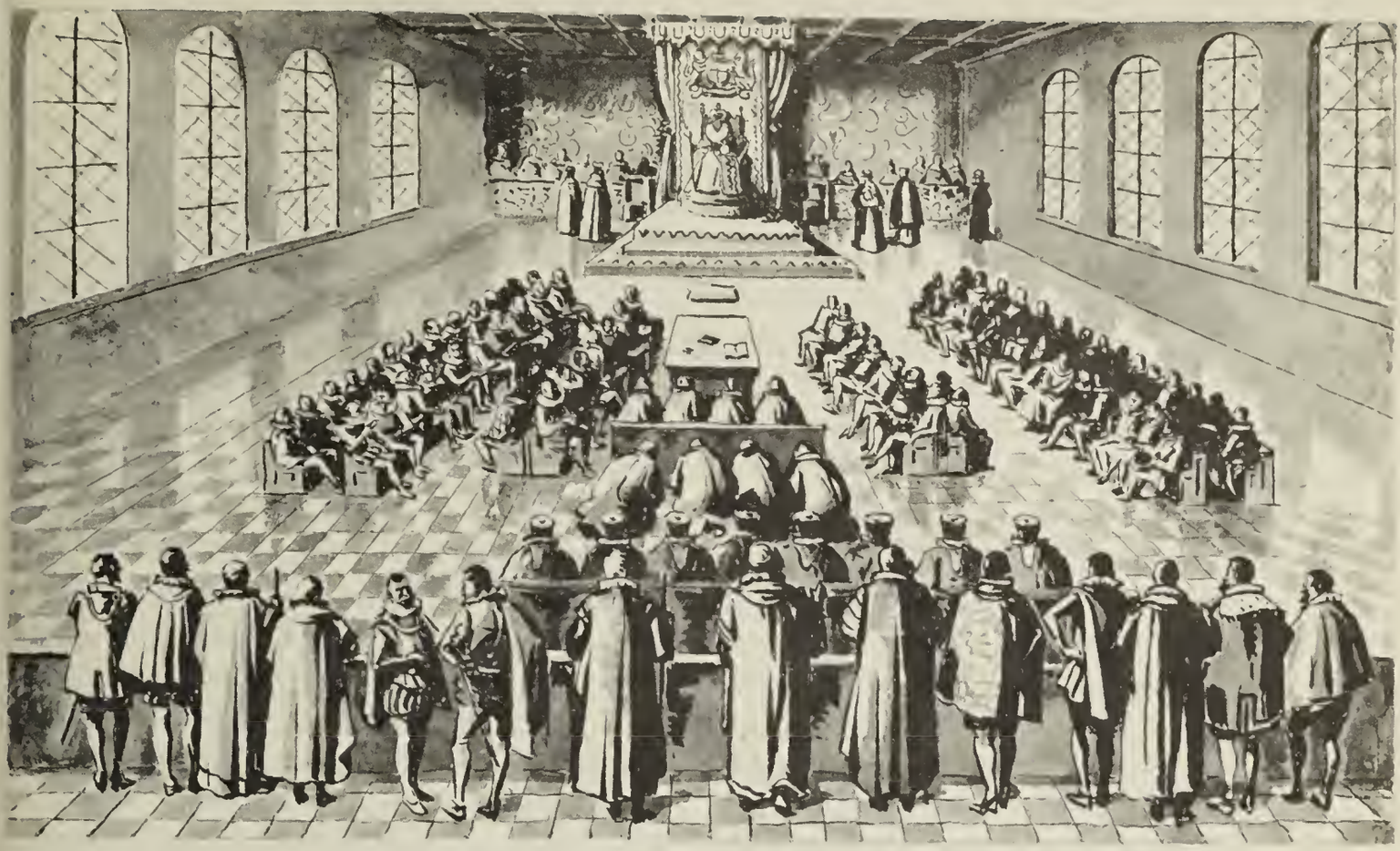


King John put his royal seal on the Magna Charta

Now the nobles wanted these liberties in the Magna Charta mainly for themselves, for when this charter was written the only men in England who were wholly free *were* the nobles. But as the years passed, the townspeople and the serfs and vassals of these lords gained more freedom, until they too were free men. Thus the Magna Charta came to mean that no citizen of England, however poor and humble, could be unjustly arrested or attacked. It also meant that the people had a right to say something about what taxes should be paid. For this reason the Magna Charta has been a kind of cornerstone on which the freedom of the English people has been built. And because our own country's liberties were partly brought from England, the Magna Charta has meant a great deal to us, too.

How the people began to make the laws. The middle class in England were the citizens of the towns. This class was increasing all the time, not only in numbers but in wealth. The merchants, who carried on the country's trade, and the bankers, who loaned money for business, belonged to this class.

Less than a hundred years after King John signed the Magna Charta, King Edward I ruled in England. It was the custom for the king to call together a group of his lords known as the Great Council, and to ask their advice about the making of laws and the laying of taxes. King Edward knew that the wealthy merchants and bankers of the towns now had much of the money, and that if they refused to pay the taxes he would have trouble getting enough money for his purposes. He decided



A meeting of Parliament during the reign of Queen Elizabeth

that he needed some of these men from the towns on his council. So he invited them to the council meeting, and agreed not to lay any taxes without their consent.

The Great Council with its new members from the towns became known as *Parliament*, another word for council. It was divided into two groups, the *House of Lords*, composed of nobles, and the *House of Commons*, composed of citizens from the towns. As years passed the power of Parliament grew. Parliament met only when summoned by the king, and usually the king called the members together only when he needed money. The king's money came from taxes collected from the people, and only Parliament could levy taxes. When the king called Parliament together, the members often asked the king to agree to some law or laws which they wanted. The king was forced to approve the requests of Parliament or do without the money he needed. In this way it became the custom for Parliament to make the laws for England, and the power of Parliament grew steadily.

The poorer class of the people were far more numerous than the nobles and merchant classes put together. Most of them lived in small villages, or worked on the farm lands. But the cities, too, had their very poor people. Many years passed before these ordinary working people had anything to say about laws or taxes. They had no part in the government and no way to make their needs known.

Churches with new names began to grow up in Europe. About this time some people began questioning the teachings of the Roman Catholic Church. The Roman Catholic Church had been the one great Church of western Europe for more than a thousand years. Now new churches were started, with different

beliefs, different ways of worship, and different kinds of church government.

This was a time of unrest when some people began to criticize many things, including the government and the Church. They had new ideas. Sometimes these ideas were about trade and business. Sometimes they were about government, how the leaders laid their taxes or raised their armies. Sometimes they were about the Bible. Some of these people talked and argued about the meaning of what they read in the Bible. Often they did not agree with each other.

Leaders arose, among both the priests and the people, who were grieved at practices of certain people within the Church. Some of these leaders believed that there were people within the Church who were more interested in wealth and earthly power than in religion and the good of the people. Others disagreed with some of the rules the Church was making for people to follow in their everyday life and business. All of this was called protesting, and those who protested became known as *Protestants*. Those who remained loyal to the Church were, of course, still called Catholics. One of the greatest of the Protestant leaders was a German by the name of Martin Luther. Many of the first Protestant churches in Europe were called Lutheran Churches.

Many of those who remained loyal to the Catholic Church saw that there were some things wrong with people within their Church. These things had to be set right. Reforms had to be made within the Church itself. One man in particular did much to restore the strength of the Catholic Church. This man was Ignatius Loyola, a well-to-do Spanish soldier.

Ignatius was severely wounded in battle. During his illness he had a dream which made him wish to put aside all pleasures and devote himself to God and the Church. He gave away his rich clothes and weapons and founded an order of soldiers for God called the Society of Jesus. The men who joined this company took the vows of monks, and a vow of unchanging loyalty to the Pope. They were known as Jesuits, and they became one of the missionary groups of the Roman Catholic Church, willing to go anywhere and to suffer anything for the Church.

Meanwhile, all over Europe there were religious discussions and quarrels. As strong religious leaders arose, each was followed by thousands of people who listened to his teachings and accepted his belief. These leaders often did not agree with each other. People formed different ideas about what the words of the Bible meant, and about what was true Christianity. Different groups formed their own churches, each with its special way of worshipping God. They were all called Protestant churches, but they were given different names in different parts of Europe. This great period of religious change is usually called the *Protestant Reformation.*

In England the change to Protestantism was made by the king. It was partly a change in the government of the church. Many of the beliefs and services still remained much like those of the Catholic Church, but the king, instead of the Pope, was the head of the church. It was called the Church of England, and the English government paid for church buildings and the living of church officials. Such a church is called a state church, or an established church. Many other Protestant churches were later founded in England.

Parliament fought a king. Democracy was slowly growing. When a king was unjust and harsh he found himself in trouble, for Parliament would vote him no more tax money. This is what happened to King Charles I. He got into many foolish wars, for which he asked so much tax money that Parliament refused to

grant his demands. Charles was so angry that he sent the members of Parliament home and refused to call another meeting of Parliament for eleven years. Meanwhile he got money in any way he could. He borrowed. He collected unlawful taxes by force. He put those who opposed him in prison.

Religious quarrels made matters worse. Charles and his friends wanted to make the Church of England more like the Catholic Church. Certain members of Parliament were strong Protestants called Puritans. When these men objected to the actions of the king they too were punished, and some of them were put in prison. When the king finally called Parliament together, the members took things into their own hands and declared war on the king.

The king had his royal army of trained soldiers, while the army that Parliament gathered was made up largely of untrained men. One of the generals, however, was a strong, serious man called Oliver Cromwell. "Let me enlist your soldiers," said Cromwell, "I'll get you men who will know what they are fighting for. They will defend the rights of Englishmen to speak their minds and to say what taxes they will pay."

Cromwell was a Puritan. He filled his army with sober, determined men, who were known as "Cromwell's Ironsides." They defeated the king's soldiers and captured the king. King Charles was tried, sentenced to death, and beheaded.

Such a thing had never been done before! The people in the other countries of Europe were amazed. How could any people dare to give orders to their king? How did they dare to put him to death? Other kings shuddered at the idea. For nine years Cromwell ruled England. He was an able ruler, though a stern and hard one.

How political parties grew up. Soon after Cromwell died the son of Charles returned to England and became King Charles II. The new king liked to enjoy himself and did not care very much how England was governed. He and his advisers began to repeat the mistakes which had cost his father, Charles I, his life.

In Parliament there were many hot debates. The men who were against the king organized a club with the motto, "We hope in God." Because the first letters of these words spelled *whig*, these men soon got the name of *Whigs*. The men who supported the king were called *Tories*.

These Whigs and Tories were the first *political parties* in England. A political party is a group of people who agree about the things they want in *politics*, that is, the way the government is to be run. Another group of people may have different ideas about what the government should do, and they may form another political party. These political parties each try to get support from the people, so that they can run the government the way they think is best. We have this party system in our own country.

The Glorious Revolution. When Charles II died, his brother James II became king. James II angered many of the people by making plans to bring back to England the rule of the Catholic Church. A group of nobles, some Whigs and some Tories, offered the throne of England to William of Orange and his wife Mary, who was a daughter of the English king, if they would agree to rule according to law. William and Mary came to London and signed a paper called the *Bill of Rights*.

Next to the Magna Charta this is the most important paper in English history. It stated that the king could not set aside the laws, or demand any taxes without the consent of Parliament. It said that the king must call Parliament together often, and that there should be free speech in Parlia-

ment: the members could say just what they thought without fear of punishment. King William and Queen Mary were received with great joy. The whole change has been called the Glorious Revolution, or sometimes the Bloodless Revolution. Philosophers, in both England and France, wrote books explaining the important things which had happened in England. The English Bill of Rights and these books, which were read in many countries, had a great deal to do with two other revolutions, one in America and one in France.

The American Revolution. In your study of American history you have read of the colonists who set forth from England to the New World in search of freedom. You can easily see why many Puritans went to America after the death of Cromwell. You can understand, also, why other emigrants, not only from England, but from other countries of Europe, came to the New World. People from all over Europe longed for a fresh start in a new country, where they could live in peace and worship as they pleased. They longed to have the freedom and the opportunity necessary to build a better life for themselves and their families. They were willing to work hard and brave many dangers to win that freedom and opportunity.

Unfair taxes were one of the burdens that pressed heavily upon the people of Europe. But the settlers in new countries were not able to escape this burden completely. The rulers of Europe seized the chance to collect money by taxing the rich trade that was growing up with the colonies. Usually the colonies were allowed to trade only with the mother country. All goods shipped from the mother country had a tax added to their regular price. Also, these rulers tried to force their colonists to pay other taxes.





You may be sure that the English colonists in America were greatly interested to hear about the Glorious Revolution in England. They were glad that their countrymen could be taxed only with the consent of Parliament. But they thought it unjust that they themselves should be heavily taxed with no one to represent them and speak for them in Parliament. It was this very question of taxation without representation which had much to do with the American Revolution in 1775, less than a hundred years later.

You remember how the thirteen colonies sent their representatives to the Continental Congress to discuss the protection of their rights. These men wanted peace, but finally decided that if they must they would fight for their rights.

You remember that the American colonies defeated the army of the British king, and made the United States an independent nation with a government of its own. You know how carefully the first leaders of our country worked out the rules of our Constitution. They remembered the Magna Charta and the Bill of Rights. They learned from the past and were careful to plan a government that would protect the rights of free people.

The United States was the first country to begin its government with a written constitution. Our Declaration of Independence and our Constitution have been important and helpful to the growth of freedom all over the world.

Educated men of the cities, nobles, and common people everywhere soon heard of the new freedom in the United States. Many people who had been treated unjustly in Europe began to plan and work to bring to their own countries some of the new freedoms which were starting to grow in the New World across the Atlantic.



The French Assembly drew up the Declaration of the Rights of Man

How freedom awakened in France. Freedom began to grow slowly in France as it had in England. But the power of the French king had grown greater instead of less. The nobles were not forced to pay taxes, but the lower classes, the serfs, and the people of the towns paid heavier taxes than ever. The middle class and the merchants of the growing cities wanted the taxes to be more fair, and they wanted to run their businesses free from old feudal rules. Thousands of starving people bitterly hated the nobles and the king, who led a gay and luxurious life in splendid palaces and gardens, while the people had almost nothing. But at last, just as in England, the king had to call together his council to get more tax money.

This council, which met in 1789, was composed of three groups of members, the nobles, the representatives of the Church, and the middle class. The middle class people from the towns were determined to secure their rights. They declared themselves a National Assembly, and took possession of the government. Then they drew up a paper called the *Declaration of the Rights of Man*. This paper has meant a great deal to people fighting for freedom. It is as famous as the English *Bill of Rights* and the American *Declaration of Independence*.

By the Declaration of the Rights of Man the serfs were freed, and most of the old feudal ways of doing things were done away with. The heavy taxes on the merchant class and the poorer people were stopped. The power of the nobles, who had helped the king to keep freedom from the people, was destroyed. The old feudal rules which had kept people from building up their businesses were made unlawful. Finally, the French killed their king, Louis XVI, just as the English had executed Charles I.

"Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity!" *Fraternity* is a word meaning brotherhood. These

three words became the battle cry of the fighters of the French Revolution. Like our own Revolution, the French Revolution took fighting and bloodshed, but it did a great deal to bring freedom to the people of France and all Europe. Many of the French people, who had suffered so long, were hungry not only for bread but for revenge against the nobles. Castles were burned on some of the big estates, and many nobles fled from the country. Nobles who did not escape from France were arrested, given a quick trial, and sentenced to death. In the one year 1794, later called the Reign of Terror, several thousand nobles were beheaded.

All over Europe people longing for freedom looked with joy and hope toward the French Revolution. It gave them courage to see how the French had thrown off the king and nobles and had begun to run their own country and bring liberty to its people.

The rulers of other European countries trembled with fear of what the French people and their own people might do. Many of them joined to fight the French, who were led by a brilliant young officer named Napoleon Bonaparte.

Napoleon became a general and led the French armies into Italy, Holland, and Germany. The French armies were at first welcomed everywhere, because they brought to the people of other countries the same freedom from feudal tyranny which the French had won for themselves. But Napoleon was really more interested in power for himself and for France than he was in liberty for all peoples. He made France an empire and made himself emperor. For more than ten years of bitter warfare he fought the armies of all Europe. But Napoleon's power did not last. He was finally defeated in 1815 at Waterloo by the other European powers and sent away as a prisoner to a tiny island in the South Atlantic. Like Alexander the Great, Napoleon was a great conqueror whose empire fell apart when he was gone.

But Napoleon did some good things for France. He provided an excellent system of public schools, from primary grades to the University of France. He helped the cause of freedom by gathering the laws of France into a code. This code assured for all time the freedom of the serfs and gave the French people freedom of religion. The next king of France who came to the throne had to give the French people a constitution. France was well on the way to democracy.

Freedom grew slowly in Europe. In some countries constitutions checked the power of kings, but in most of Europe full democracy was still a long way off. There were some councils and assemblies in which the people were represented. Slowly the people won some rights, better laws, and better courts to see justice done. But the rulers were very slow to give up any of their power until they were forced to, and even in France and England very few people had a real part in government. That took time.

All over Europe, however, the spirit of freedom was growing. No king could stop it. People were reading and thinking. The restless longing for freedom was spreading. Punishment for debt, heavy taxes, and unjust laws made people dissatisfied. Sometimes the people rose in revolt, but without success. Many made plans to go to the New World across the Atlantic. In our Prologue we read a story about a ship carrying emigrants to America. During the nineteenth century such ships left the ports of Europe in great numbers. Thousands of people who were discontented started for America. There was a great migration from the Old World to the New. But millions remained behind in Europe to work and fight for democracy in their own countries.

New ways of thinking developed. Changes in civilization take place as people seek to solve some problem, but every change brings with it other problems which must be solved. During the five hundred years from the fifteenth century to the twentieth, the changes seemed unusually great and important. The Protestant Reformation led men to think out the meaning of Christianity for themselves, and to find new ways to worship God. These changes began in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Then came three revolutions in government, as men thought about democracy and fought their way toward it. In the seventeenth century the Glorious Revolution took place in England, and in the eighteenth century came the American Revolution and the French Revolution.

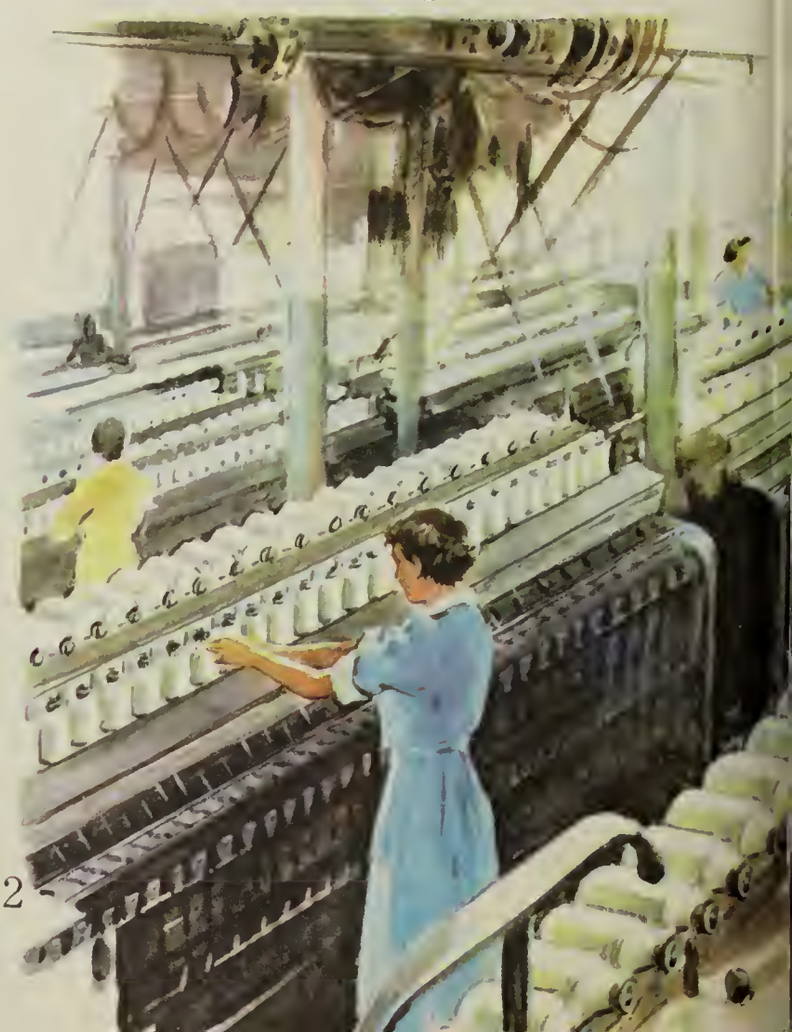
While these great changes were stirring the countries of Europe, other changes were taking place more quietly. The new birth of learning had led men to read the writings of Plato and other Greek and Roman philosophers. Like the Greeks, men asked many questions and tried to answer them. How is the body connected with the mind? What is thinking? How do minds work?

Men no longer accepted as true all the writings of Aristotle, the scientist of Greece. Instead, they followed his advice and began to look about them at the earth and sky and ask many questions. Each man who found new answers added to the knowledge of science and encouraged others to think. Some of these men studied the sky. They discovered that the sun does not move around the earth, as it appears to do, but that the earth moves around the sun. Others studied the human body. One man dis-

The spinning wheel was run by hand



Spinning machines spun thread faster and cheaper



covered that the blood *circulates*, or moves through the body, and is pumped by the heart. Others discovered important medicines and their uses in healing. One man worked with magnets, trying to find out why they drew bits of iron to them, and this small beginning later led to the discovery of electricity. Discoveries like these gave men new ideas about many things, and resulted in surprising inventions.

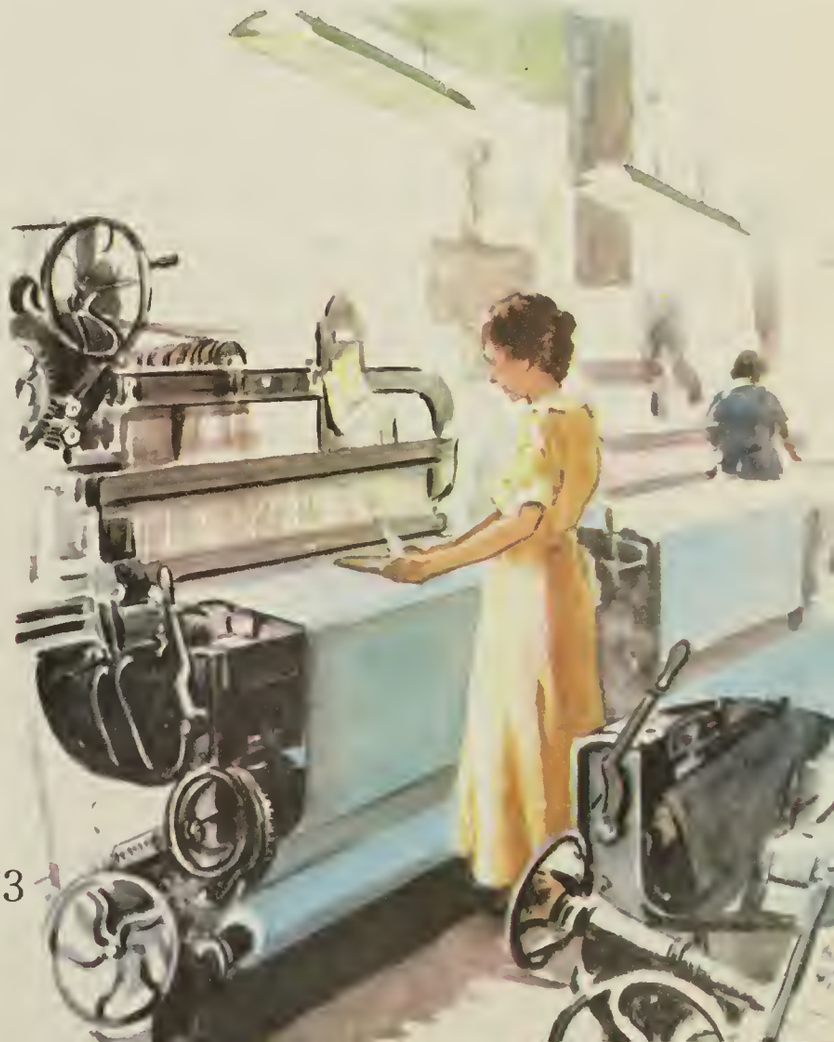
Inventions brought changes in industry. Now we must turn to changes in the ways people did their work. These changes began about the middle of the eighteenth century, and they came so quickly that they were like a revolution in industry, that is, in the way men work. This set of changes is called the *Industrial Revolution*. Until this time people had worked mostly with their own hands, and many of the tools they used were simple and crude. The Industrial Revolution came about through the invention of machines to do work. Of course there had been some machines before this. There was the printing press, for instance, and the fine machinery of clocks. But the big change in industry began with the use of machines to make cloth, and the use of steam power to drive them. These things completely changed the lives of the people.

The Industrial Revolution began in England about 1760. A great deal of cloth was made in England, but up to this time it had been made by hand. Wool was sheared, washed, and carded by hand. Cotton was taken from the pod and the seeds were removed by hand. Wooden spinning wheels were used to draw wool into yarn and cotton into thread. Cloth was woven from this yarn or thread on wooden hand looms. The weavers' guilds saw to it that the work was good. Each workman took pride in his work, and usually did his work at home. He bought

Weaving cloth on hand looms was slow



Weaving on power looms was faster and cheaper



his own materials and sold the finished cloth to a merchant or at a fair. No wonder cloth was expensive.

The spinning jenny. One day a man named James Hargreaves made a discovery. His wife, Jenny, tipped over her spinning wheel. The spindle, sticking straight up, kept right on turning and winding thread. Suddenly Hargreaves wondered if he could make a row of spindles, or spools, all turned by the same wheel. He went to work and made the first "spinning jenny," naming it for his wife. This little machine could spin eight times as much thread as the old spinning wheel. It could be turned easily, even by a child.

This started men thinking about spinning machines, and other men had new ideas. Water power had been used to grind grain between stones. Now it was tried to turn wheels for spinning. Water power proved successful, and spinning mills were built along the little rivers of England. Now workers no longer worked in their own homes; they hired out instead to the millowner and worked together at his spinning machines. This was the beginning of factories. Larger machines were built, with improvements to make the thread smooth and tight and even. Other machines were made to clean and card the wool for spinning.

The cotton gin. The climate of England was too cool to raise cotton. This was brought to England by ship from India and from the United States. It took a long time to clean cotton, because the fine, small seeds had to be picked out by hand. Even a very skilled worker could clean only four or five pounds of cotton a day. But a young American named Eli Whitney invented a machine called a cotton gin, which took the seeds from cotton. With this first machine one person could clean fifty pounds of cotton in one day, and improvements made it possible to clean more and more cotton. What a difference!

The power loom. The cotton gin made cotton much cheaper. The spinning mills of England whirred busily. They spun thread faster than it could be woven into cloth. Hand looms were too slow, and the first power loom was invented, the very thing Ned and his father had talked about. Then weaving could be done much faster. Presses were invented which printed patterns on the fresh cotton cloth as it ran over rollers.

A new power was harnessed. Water power was used in these first mills, but something else was happening. A new kind of power was found to run the new machines. This power was steam. The first steam engine was used to pump water out of coal mines in England. This made it possible to sink deeper mines, and to mine more coal. These first steam engines were not very powerful. They worked slowly, and they wasted most of the steam.

In the town of Glasgow a Scotsman named James Watt was asked to repair one of these machines. When he saw how clumsy it was, his mind went to work on the problem of saving that steam and using it. While he was taking a walk across a golf course the idea for a new engine suddenly took shape in his mind. When he got home he knew just how he would build an engine which would use all the pushing power of the steam. Before 1800 came, steam engines were being used to turn the wheels of cotton mills.

The use of steam power made two things necessary, coal and iron. Iron was used to make better machinery. Coal was needed to smelt the iron ore, and also to make the steam which ran the engines. England had plenty of coal and iron, and mining became very important.

The use of machinery spread from England into other parts of Europe. Wherever iron and coal were plentiful, an industrial center grew up. Factories were built and ma-



James Watt improved the steam engine

chines put to work, doing the tasks which had once been done by the hands of people. One person could keep many machines running. With many people working at the new machines, manufactured goods grew plentiful and cost much less.

Industrial change brought struggle. When one man could use a machine to do the work of many spinners or weavers, people who had been doing this work were alarmed. Like the village people in the story at the beginning of this chapter, some of them no longer had work, and they feared they would not be able to make a living. Many of them wanted to find some way to stop the new way of working. In some places they even broke the machines and burned factories. But the new ways were there to stay. The machine age had come. People had to change their habits, and work with the machines instead of without them. Machines brought more goods. But there was still much to learn.

Thus we see how changes solve old problems and bring new ones. The Reformation did give freedom in religion a better chance to grow. But people had to learn tolerance before there could be real freedom of religion for everyone. The new discoveries in science helped to open men's minds, but did not solve all their problems. Every change brought many more problems to be solved. The revolutions in government meant growing freedom. But democracy came slowly, and could not become really sound until people had learned how to work together to make and enforce just laws. Can you see what the Industrial Revolution meant? Did it mean freedom from work? Let us see.

Life in England, and in other parts of Europe, was greatly changed by the use of machines. Often a farmer and his family found it impossible to make a living on the farm. Many such families went to the city to live, where they could get work in mills and fac-

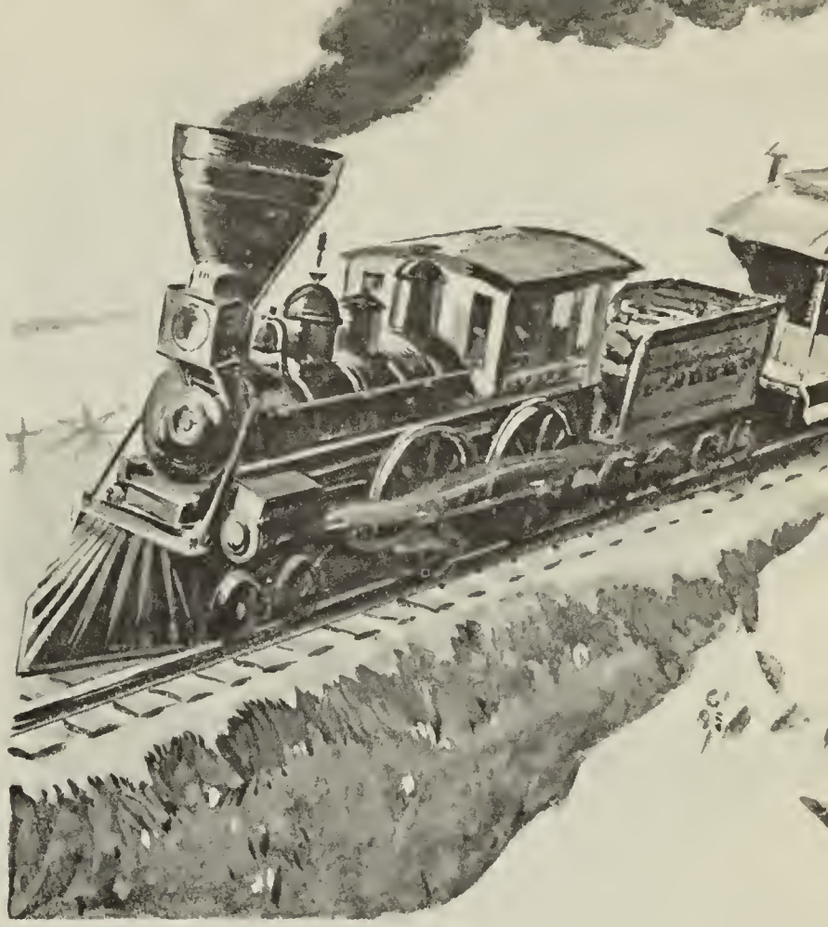
tories. It seemed better to go to work each day and have a regular wage than to get into debt working a farm which did not pay. But factory work was heavy and dull. The working hours were long and the pay was low. Women and children, even very small children, worked hard from dawn to dark in factories without enough air or light. The mines and mills needed many workers. People flocked into the towns until there were not houses for them all. Houses were crowded together, and people were crowded into them. Dark, narrow streets, and crowded dirty buildings caused much distress. Often the pay was so small that the workers could not buy enough food, and sometimes the food itself was bad.

Here were plenty of problems for people to solve, the problems of the Industrial Revolution. How can many people live together in cities, and work together in factories, and still keep healthy in body and alert in mind? Would the machines work for the people and make life easier and better? At first this did not happen. Most of the people really worked for the machines. And at first most of the owners of factories thought that it was none of their business what happened to the people who worked in their factories.

But through the years a change has taken place. Many things helped to make this change. For one thing, the workers joined together into unions. This meant that it was the union which talked to the factory owner, rather than each worker by himself. The working people learned that they could win better conditions for themselves if they co-operated







with each other. The unions wanted better places for people to work in and higher wages. They asked for a shorter working day and better places to live in. They sometimes went on strike and refused to work unless they were treated more fairly. Gradually laws were passed to secure better wages and working conditions for the workers. This happened in almost every country where industry became important. Where have we heard of something like this? Does it remind you of the plebeians long ago in the Roman Republic? Do you remember that when they demanded help with their troubles about debts and lands, the tribunes saw that laws were passed?

These problems first arose in England in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Many people today are still facing and trying to solve these problems. In some countries the change from handwork to machine industry has not yet taken place. In other countries it is going on now, changing life almost overnight. In the last half of this book we shall look at life in many different countries, and we may learn some of the ways in which people are trying to solve the problems of the machine age.

Other inventions made the world grow smaller. We have heard about the steam engine and its use in factory and mine. Steam was harnessed to the ship, and steamships took the place of sailing vessels. The Atlantic could now be crossed in days instead of in weeks. Steam was used in the locomotive. Railroads were laid overland, railroad bridges were built across rivers, and tunnels were dug through mountains. People could travel at speeds they had never dreamed possible. This made the world seem smaller, because it took much less time to go from one place to another.

While these things were going on, men were experimenting with two other kinds of power. So many men worked on these things, each in his own workshop, that we cannot even name them all. But we should remember a few. *Michael Faraday*, the son of a London blacksmith, was one of them. Faraday discovered the principle of the electric *dynamo*. This was really a little electric machine by itself. It



Marconi developed the wireless telegraph

could change the power created by the water wheel or the steam engine into electric current flowing along wires.

Then still greater wonders became possible through the use of electricity. Messages went along wires! Chief among the men who perfected the telegraph was the American, *Samuel F. B. Morse.* Cables were laid underwater, first across the English Channel, then across the Atlantic Ocean. Messages could be flashed from continent to continent, and the world seemed smaller still. Before the end of the nineteenth century telephones were in use. Electricity first lighted the lamps in city streets, and later in homes and shops. Electric streetcars appeared in cities, and electric trolley lines ran between towns.

All these inventions depended on electric currents flowing along wires. But another group of eager inventors was working with electric waves passing through the air with no wires to carry them. Among them was *Marconi,* an Italian lad only fourteen years old. When Marconi was twenty he came to England to work with other inventors. The result was the wireless telegraph. By the year 1900 messages could be flashed across land and sea, in any direction. They could even pass through walls! This was the beginning of radio, which has done wonders to make our world seem very small and distant places very near.

Gasoline was harnessed to become another servant. In 1887 for the first time a German inventor proved that a small car could be run by means of a gasoline engine. By 1900 racing cars had been built which had a speed of nearly forty miles an hour. Not very fast, you may think, but what a lot had been done in the short space of thirteen years! Gasoline-driven motorboats, motorcycles, and automobiles soon came into common use, and were steadily improved. The world had turned the corner into the twentieth century, our own century.

Then the gasoline engine was finally put into a flying machine. For centuries men had dreamed of flying, and every now and then some inventor would think of a new plan. Long before, in the fifteenth century, the artist Leonardo da Vinci had drawn a plan for a flying machine. But he gave up making it because he did not know what to use for power. During the nineteenth century many men tried to make a machine that would fly. It was the *Wright brothers* in the United States who finally succeeded. In 1905 they successfully flew in their plane, driven by a gasoline engine. Since then thousands of workers have kept on improving the airplane. Today air travel, steadily gaining in safety and speed, has made the world very small indeed.

These wonderful inventions, however, have brought more problems for men to solve. These problems are perhaps the hardest the world has ever faced. Inventions have brought the nations of the world close together. Radio and airplanes can be used as deadly weapons in time of war. This has been proved in two terrible wars in our own century. In 1914 and again in 1939 war broke out in Europe and spread over the world. The Second World War was far more terrible than the First World War. In this war airplanes in swift night raids dropped bombs on towns, killing hundreds of thousands of helpless people. Air weapons, guided by wireless control, sped long distances to bring death and destruction. Finally, the discovery of a new kind of power, from the splitting of the atom, made possible the atomic bomb, the most destructive force the world has ever known.

Nations unite for war. In the Second World War, Hitler, the dictator of Germany, aided by Mussolini, the dictator of Italy, set out to conquer Europe. Japan, already at war with China, became an ally of Germany and Italy. Fighting against them were five great powers, the United States, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, France, and China, and many other nations. Even before the war was over, the leaders of these countries agreed that it was not enough to gain the victory in this war. They must see to it that there could not be another such terrible war. They must unite not only to win the war, but also to make and keep the peace. In order to do this they formed an organization called the *United Nations*.

Nations must unite for peace. In the spring of 1945 an international conference was held at San Francisco, California. Fifty nations sent delegates to this conference, and a charter, or Constitution, for the United Nations was completed. Since that time other nations have asked for membership and several have been admitted to the organization.

A meeting of the General Assembly of the United Nations



The chief purpose of the United Nations is to maintain the peace of the world. In order to do this successfully they must find out and remove the causes of war. This takes us right back to the things we have been studying, the needs of people everywhere, the things for which they will fight—food and shelter, freedom from injustice, an opportunity to make life better. A peaceful world, it is clear, will be a world in which all nations work together to satisfy these needs.

The Charter of the United Nations sets up a plan for such work. There are committees, or commissions, to study these different needs of all peoples, and to plan how better they can be provided for. There are other commissions to study disputes which arise between nations, ways to settle these disputes, and ways to keep other disputes from arising.

These are new and difficult things which the United Nations are trying to do. But some things have been accomplished already, although only a few years have passed since the charter was adopted. Some disputes have been settled and some conditions have been improved. Slowly the nations, through their representatives, must learn how to work together, how to trust each other, how to plan for better conditions and for real co-operation.

In December, 1948, the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* was adopted. We remember the *Bill of Rights* in England, the *Declaration of Independence* in the United States, and the *Declaration of the Rights of Man* in France. These three papers have had a long and strong influence for freedom in the world. This new Universal Declaration is very important. It is not law. But it is a clear statement of the right to freedom of every human being, a statement to which the United Nations by their representatives have agreed. This is a firm foundation on which to build laws which will have the respect of all the world. It makes another step forward toward understanding and co-operation between the nations. There are thirty rights in the Universal Declaration. On this page and the next two pages you will find these thirty rights in a clear, short form so that you can see just what they are.

War has become so terrible and so destructive that a new war might mean the end of all civilization on our earth. The greatest problem which nations of today must solve is how to live together as neighbors and settle disputes without war. This problem will not be easily or quickly solved. But the United Nations may be able to link the world together in a peaceful federation. This may put an end to war. It may help the people of each country to gain the kind of freedom which will mean better and happier lives.

Thirty Human Rights[1]

Because you live in the United States, you have certain rights protected by law. You can worship as you please, write and speak freely. No one can break into your home or drag you off to jail in secret. These are only a few of your American rights.

Few people in the world have such rights. In many countries, rulers can gag and terrorize the people, silencing all opposition to aggression and war. When this happens, peace is threatened.

For that reason, the United Nations has adopted a Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Like our own Declaration of Independence, it is not a code of law, but a state-

[1]This unofficial version of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (pp. 180–182) is used by permission of the American Association for the United Nations.

ment of principles. It contains thirty rights that may reshape the world.

Get to know these thirty rights. We can't be sure of peace until they are guaranteed for all men.

Here, in brief, is a simplified, unofficial version of what the Declaration of Human Rights says to every person on earth:

1. Since all people are brothers and sisters in the human family, you should treat everyone with respect.



2. Your rights have nothing to do with your bank account, family ancestry, religion, sex, color, or political beliefs.

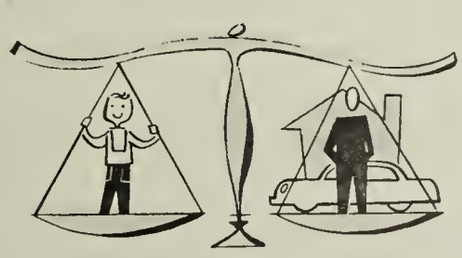
3. You have the right to be alive and to stay that way.

4. No one can make you a slave.

5. You cannot be tortured or punished in any degrading way.

6. Your rights belong to you wherever you go.

7. You are as important as anyone else in the eyes of the law.



8. If anyone takes away any of your basic rights, you can ask court action to get them back.

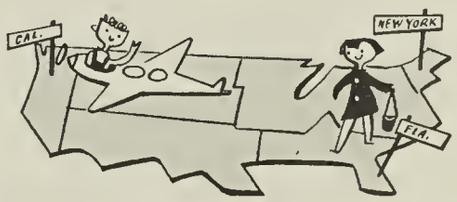
9. You can't be arrested or exiled unless you've done something wrong.

10. If charged with a crime, you will get a fair, public trial in an impartial court.

11. You must be considered innocent until proven guilty. You can't be punished for any act that was not considered a crime when you did it.

12. No one, without lawful reason, can read your mail, enter your home without your permission, or interfere in your personal and family affairs.

13. You can come and go freely in your own country, leave and return as you please.



14. If you are persecuted in your own country, you can seek refuge in another.

15. You have the right to a nationality. No one can take it away or prevent you from changing it if you want to.

16. Once you're of age, you can marry whomever you choose and raise a family. You can't be forced to marry against your will.

17. You may own property, either by yourself or with others. It can't be taken away from you illegally.

18. You have freedom of religion and the right to express your religious convictions.



19. You may say, write, and read whatever you choose.

20. You may form organizations and attend any public gathering. But you can't be forced to go to meetings or join any association.

21. You have the right to take part in your government by voting in free elections. And you're entitled to all the services which your government provides.

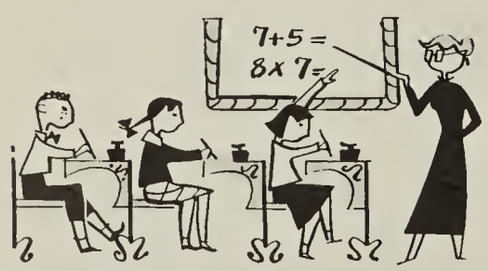


22. You have the right to social-security benefits and, according to the available facilities, to live in dignity.

23. You may go after any job you can handle, and you are entitled to a living wage. You may join a trade union.

24. You have the right to rest and leisure, reasonable working hours, and paid holidays.

25. You are entitled to decent food, clothing, housing, medical care, and pensions for sickness, disability, and old age. Mothers and children deserve special care.



26. You have the right to a free elementary education and to as much higher schooling as your abilities merit.

27. You may share in the enjoyment of art and science, receiving any profit that results from your own talent.

28. You deserve to live in a peaceful world where all these rights can be realized.

29. You must shoulder your own responsibilities to society, making sure you don't step on the rights of others.

30. Neither you nor any other person, nor any nation, has the right to destroy any rights listed in this declaration.

Study Questions

1. What different things helped to break Europe up into nations?

2. What nations sent explorers out upon the ocean and for what purpose?

3. How was the Age of Queen Elizabeth in England like the Age of Pericles in Athens and the Age of Augustus in Rome?

4. Why was the defeat of the Spanish Armada important?

5. Who signed the Magna Charta, how did it happen, and why was it important?

6. What was the English Bill of Rights and how did it change England's government?

7. What country was the first to have a written constitution as the foundation of its laws?

8. What was the name of the great French paper of freedom?

9. What great change in the way people worked took place during the 18th and 19th centuries, and what is it usually called?

10. What new kinds of power did men learn how to use?

Thought Questions about Change

Below are some questions which will take careful thinking, for they are not easy to answer. Perhaps you may decide that some of them could have more than one good answer. Talk them over with your classmates.

1. Is a new way of acting always better than an old way? Why?

2. How can you tell which way is better?

3. Would you rather be a craftsman of the Middle Ages, working by hand and belonging to a guild, or a worker in a large factory today, running a machine? Why?

4. Why do people object to changes in their way of living and working?

5. What are some of the more important changes which recent inventions, such as airplanes and radios, have brought to us, not only to each one but to our cities and to the whole country?

Interesting Things to Do

1. Make a large circle with your home in the center, and lines from the center going out to the edges of the circle. The edge of the circle represents a nearby city. On these lines write the time it would take to go to the city on foot, on a bicycle, in a car, on a train, in a plane.

2. If there is a projector to be had, get some slides showing ways in which life has been changed by the Industrial Revolution. If you can get pictures of the manufacture of an airplane or automobile, you will be able to see how it moves from one worker to another, each doing some one small task.

3. Trade covers the world today. Make a list of the things that go into your food for one dinner, and see from how many parts of the world they come. Or take the clothes you wear, and make such a list of all the materials of which they are made.

4. Appoint a committee to study the United Nations and report to the class. Ask your local librarian for suitable material. Organize the class into a session of the United Nations Assembly and discuss some problem or situation that interests the class. Perhaps class members can act as delegates from different countries and discuss some problem that is in the news.

5. Try to find a good life story of one of the inventors mentioned in this chapter and see if you can learn how he came to make the invention for which he is famous. Or, you may be more interested in finding out about some other invention, such as the motion-picture camera or the sewing machine. The class will be interested in hearing your report. Or perhaps you might dramatize a scene in connection with the invention of the telegraph or locomotive.

Who Was It?

Copy the questions in your notebook, then find the answer for each in the group of names below and write it after the question.

1. Who invented the wireless telegraph?
2. Who signed the Magna Charta?
3. Who started the Society of Jesus?
4. Who discovered the short route to India?
5. Who defeated a king and sent him to death?

Martin Luther	King John
James Hargreaves	James Watt
Queen Elizabeth	Joan of Arc
Marconi	Oliver Cromwell
Vasco da Gama	Ignatius Loyola
Hitler	Napoleon

Can you make questions to go with some of the other names?



9. A Hilltop View of the Last Fifteen Hundred Years

We stand on a hilltop again. Some scientists and philosophers believe that the twentieth century in which we live may be the beginning of a new age in the history of the world. It is time to look back at the centuries we have been studying, and find out what they have meant to civilization. On page 187 is another chart, which will help us to look back.

On this chart each century, or hundred years, has a whole space instead of a single line. The spaces are full of people and events we want to remember. They are placed as nearly in order as could be managed in such small spaces. Remember that the words are just to remind you of the things you have been learning. And don't forget that each century takes its name from the number at its close. The great events of the fifteenth century took place between 1400 and 1500. Study the sentences in each space and be sure you understand what they mean. Find the phrases which tell how the interest in beauty and learning came back. Find those which tell how freedom grew.

The Roman Empire had fallen apart so badly, and the barbarians who came into the Roman Empire destroyed so much, that the people of western Europe had to begin building civilization again almost from the beginning. Looking back across the Middle Ages from our hilltop, we watch its slow return. Many treasures of art and learning were lost, and had to be rediscovered and brought back. Democracy like that of Greece and orderly government such as that of Rome were nowhere to be found in early feudal times. Of the great gifts of the past only one, Christi-

anity, remained to help the people of Europe. But wherever people are strong and active, changes are bound to come. From our hilltop we get a good view of these changes, and we learn some new things.

Freedom looks two ways. We have learned that people become civilized by seeking a better way of life. The reason civilization will never stop changing is that people are never satisfied, and never reach perfection. They are always trying to make their way of living better. This desire is deep within all of us. The first things men must have in order to live are food and shelter. That is why people sometimes say that the first freedom is freedom from hunger and cold. When we think about this we begin to see that freedom points in two directions, or we might say that *freedom looks two ways*. People want freedom *from* whatever is hurtful to body or mind; this means relief from burdens. On the other hand, they also want freedom *for* whatever satisfies their desire to make life better; this is opportunity. Freedom means to all of us either relief or opportunity. This, then, is the true meaning of freedom: freedom from hunger, cold, and danger, and freedom to do, to learn, or to create something which will make life happier or more interesting.

In order to make life happier people want and need these freedoms. They need freedom from burdens. They want freedom to help choose their own government and the right to say how it shall be run. They want freedom to learn about the world around them, about people and animals, birds and plants, how they live and why they die. They want to know about the earth and sky, what they are made of, why they move and change, and what laws govern them. They want to learn how to use these laws to improve living conditions. Then they want the freedom and opportunity to create and enjoy beauty. They discover that beautiful things give them pleasure, and they try to make beautiful things for themselves: music, pictures, books, clothing, homes, and churches.

As we look from the hilltop at the people of feudal times, we see that the strongest had the most freedom. What freedom was there for the serfs? Almost none. The armed knights usually protected them from the enemy's weapons. But they were seldom free from hunger, and were often cold in winter. They had not passed through the first door to freedom. The nobles were further along. They usually had plenty of food and well-built homes, and so they were free from hunger and cold. They were armed and able to defend themselves against their enemies. They did have a chance for something of beauty and pleasure. But each vassal was bound to obey his lord. Each lord had to fight to protect his possessions. The life of feudal times, for most of the people alive then, was chiefly busy with those first three important things: food, shelter, and safety. And what about the freedom which means opportunity for the things which make life happy and interesting?

The slow return of learning and art brought changes for the better. Increasing trade built up towns, and with towns came opportunity for education. Schools were started for craftsmen, and many of the townspeople had a chance to learn. The sons of nobles could pay for private teachers and there were important schools connected with the churches. The art and learning of Greece and Rome were rediscovered and studied. Men became interested also in the world around them. The great joy people found in the new learning and art shows us again that knowledge and beauty make life more satisfying. These things were within reach once more. The craftsmen and their apprentices took pride in doing beautiful work. The students who learned painting from

the master artists of Italy, and those who listened to great teachers at the universities, were making their lives richer and filling them with real satisfaction.

Most of the people did not share these things. The land was still governed by the strongest, the conquering kings and lords. Only in the towns do we find freemen taking part in their own government. But the spirit of freedom was at work. The confusion and disorder of the early Middle Ages was passing. Strong kings defeated the quarreling feudal lords, and nations as we know them today were beginning to develop.

Doorways to freedom began to open in the last five hundred years. One of these doorways was freedom of speech. The new birth of learning made people begin to think and discuss. Those who died for their religious beliefs, as many did, were pushing open the doors of freedom of speech and freedom of religion. Exploration wakened people's minds and taught them new things about the world. Men who spent long hours in the laboratory, working to discover laws of physics and chemistry, were making new paths for the minds of men.

Another doorway was the right of self-government. In some countries men began to learn how best they could work together for the freedom desired by all. They must think out and set down the rights which belong to every human being. They must agree to strive for those rights and to defend them by law and government. The Bill of Rights in England, the Declaration of Independence in the United States, and the Declaration of the Rights of Man in France were great doorways to democracy, or freedom in government.

But freedom must be kept in a changing world. With every change come new problems, which must be solved for the good of all. The Industrial Revolution brought new ways to work, and cheaper goods, and it brought problems, too. We in the United States are still working to solve the problems of the Machine Age. How can people in crowded cities have comfortable and healthful conditions in which to live and work? How can all children have plenty of good food and fresh air and out-of-door playgrounds? How can men who own machinery make a fair profit and at the same time pay a fair wage to the men who work for them? Many thoughtful Americans are trying to find the right answers to such questions as these. Under a democratic government every man ought to have a chance to make life better for himself and his family. We who love our country must be willing to go on studying and planning to make and keep the United States truly a land of opportunity for all who live here. More than that, we must be willing to do our part in solving the problems of a changing world.

The earth changes its size. Today we live in a new kind of world. The last five hundred years have brought the quickest changes the world has ever seen. Not only has life changed in many countries, but the very earth itself seems to have changed in size. Inventions have made the world much smaller. No wonder we have new problems, and very hard ones, to solve.

With the steamship, speed of travel increased so rapidly that the earth seemed to grow smaller. Radio and aviation have brought all nations close together. By radio, people in every country in the world may hear the same music or listen to the same speaker at the same time. By airplane we may travel in any direction at speeds which are steadily growing faster. Study the global map on page 188 to see how the routes of the air link the countries of our world. In early times travel and trade went by land routes and ships hugged the coast. We call that the *Land Age*, and we know that

Looking Back at the History of the Last Fifteen Hundred Years

Barbarians invaded Empire—**ROME FELL**

500 A.D. 500 A.D.

Monasteries spread Christianity and preserved learning

DISORDER SPREAD THROUGHOUT EUROPE DURING DARK AGES

600 600

Wars among groups of
Teutonic barbarians
led by chieftains

700 700

Charles the Hammer defeated Moslems
Europe remained Christian

800 Charlemagne reigned 800

Northmen settled in England and in Normandy
Danes defeated by Anglo-Saxons under Alfred

900 900

FEUDALISM ALL OVER EUROPE

Many wars fought among kings and strong nobles

1000 1000

CHURCH HELD PEOPLE OF EUROPE TOGETHER

William conquered England at Hastings

1100 First Crusade 1100

TRADE INCREASED, TOWNS BEGAN TO GROW, FREEDOM GREW

Craftsmen formed guilds, opened schools
Gothic cathedrals brought beauty to towns

1200 1200

Venice and Genoa became great centers of trade

In England King John signed the Magna Carta,
Parliament formed

Marco Polo crossed Asia, visited Kublai Khan

1300 1300

NEW BIRTH OF ART AND LEARNING BEGAN IN ITALY
AND SPREAD THROUGHOUT EUROPE

1400 1400

Gutenberg printed Bible—Turks took Constantinople

1500 Columbus discovered America 1500

EXPLORATION AND TRADE RESULTED IN COLONIZATION AND WARS
AGE OF SCIENCE BROUGHT CHANGES IN WAYS OF LIVING

1600 1600

English secured Bill of Rights

1700 1700

INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION BEGAN IN ENGLAND

FREEDOM GREW through the Declaration of Independence in America
and the Declaration of the Rights of Man in France

1800 1800

INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION SPREAD OVER EUROPE—USE OF STEAM,
GASOLINE, AND ELECTRICITY MAKES THE WORLD SEEM SMALLER
IDEAS OF FREEDOM SPREAD

1900 1900

First World War and Second World War brought destruction and disorder

AIR TRAVEL DEVELOPED—ATOMIC POWER DEVELOPED
United Nations organized to keep the peace

2000 (What other important events will happen before 2000 A.D.?) 2000



A global map of the principal air routes of the world

mountain ranges and wide deserts barred the way with great difficulties and dangers. Now the airplane skims across the vast desert of North Africa and soars over the highest mountains in the world between India and China. The age of exploration and travel on the sea we call the *Sea Age*. Still the frozen Arctic and Antarctic could not be crossed. But the plane can speed across these frozen regions straight to its journey's end. Now trade, travel, and messages go by air, as well as by land or sea. The twentieth century has opened the *Air Age*.

Look at the globe pictures of the Northern and Southern hemispheres on page 15.

Which contains more land? By far the greater number of people live in the Northern Hemisphere. Look at the Arctic Ocean on this global picture. Does it remind you of the Mediterranean Sea? It, too, is a "sea in the middle of the land." As we read further in this book we are to study people in many different countries. While we do this, let us turn often to look at these globe pictures and at the globe picture on page 188. Let us remember that no country is far away from us today. Over the radio we can hear the voices of people on the other side of the globe. By plane we can travel to any spot on the globe in a short time. Truly, every country in the world is our neighbor in the Air Age.

Neighbor nations must learn neighborly ways. The world is now so small that a war anywhere might bring all of us into trouble. The new weapons of war are so terrible that they could destroy us all. We can no longer afford to settle our disputes by fighting. We must learn to do this by peaceful means, no matter how hard that may be.

This is a new road to travel, but the first great steps along this road have been taken by the organization of the United Nations. It is now possible for representatives of the nations of the world, the small nations along with the large, actually to talk their problems over together. We know, of course, that nations whose people have different languages, different histories, and different customs will think differently and will have different problems. But the one great problem of all of us is to learn to live together in understanding and co-operation.

What can we do to help to solve this problem? The most important thing is to learn to understand the peoples of other countries. As we study other countries we find that their ideas are not the same as ours. Their idea of freedom may be different, and this is not surprising, for we have learned that there are many kinds of freedom. Their ideas of government may be different, because they have a different history behind them. This is a time for understanding. We in the United States may believe that our kind of democracy is the best way for all people to find freedom. But other people may believe that their own way of doing things is the best way. What people believe depends on their past experiences and the conditions under which they are living. We cannot force others to believe that our way is best, and we certainly do not want to force them. We can only persuade them by trying to make sure that our democracy really works as well as it can.

We hope that all countries can co-operate to make a successful organization of nations, just as our states made a nation. But here, too, we must first want other nations to trust us, and we must try to understand and trust them. Those who would have good neighbors must be good neighbors. If the school children in all countries learn this lesson well, the leaders of tomorrow will be able to work together, and our Air-Age world will be a peaceful world.

Hilltop Questions

1. The Christian religion was the only one of the great gifts of the past which lasted steadily in western Europe through barbarian times. How did it help to bring back the others, law and order, learning and beauty?

2. How did the monks in their monasteries help to bring back learning? What did they do to create beauty?

3. How did the Gothic cathedrals help people to find beauty?

4. How did travel and exploration help to free men's minds and make them think?

5. How do new inventions keep people thinking today?

Thinking about Freedom

1. What new things have you learned about freedom?
2. What do we mean when we say "Freedom looks two ways"?
3. What things do people want to be free from?
4. What things do they want freedom for?
5. How do law and order help people toward freedom?
6. How does democracy in government help toward freedom?
7. Do all free people have learning and happiness and beautiful things?
8. Why is freedom so important?

A Hilltop Who's Who

Look back over the three periods since the fall of Rome, name some of the greatest leaders, and tell what part they had in building freedom. Put their names and what they did in your notebook as suggested below:

a. Period I, 500 to 1100 A.D.

Name four warrior kings and tell what each did.

b. Period II, 1100 to 1500 A.D.

Name a traveler, a printer, and an explorer, and tell how each helped to awaken Europe.

c. Period III, 1500 to 1900 A.D.

Name one religious leader, one military leader, and one inventor, and tell how each helped freedom of mind, of speech, or of movement.

Perhaps you would like to choose one, or more, of these men for special study. Look up more information about him in the encyclopedia or in some other book. You might write a short story of his life in your notebook.

Interesting Books about the Middle Ages

BARNES, FRANKLIN. *Man and His Records.* Follett Publishing Co., Chicago, 1936. How people first learned to write; writing in the Middle Ages.

BRINK, CAROL. *Lad with a Whistle.* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1941. Story of children in Scotland in the days of Sir Walter Scott.

GIBSON, KATHARINE. *Bow Bells.* Longmans, Green & Company, Inc., New York, 1943. Story of London, in 1374, based on the tale of Dick Whittington and his cat.

GRAY, ELIZABETH JANET. *Adam of the Road.* The Viking Press, Inc., New York, 1942. Fine story of a minstrel boy of thirteenth-century England.

KELLY, ERIC. *At the Sign of the Golden Compass.* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1938. Exciting story of a boy who worked for a printer in the early days of printing.

KENT, LOUISE. *He Went with Magellan.* Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1943.

KENT, LOUISE. *He Went with Marco Polo.* Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1935. Accounts of great adventure journeys as seen through youthful eyes.

LAMPREY, LOUISE. *In the Days of the Guilds.* Frederick A. Stokes Company, New York, 1918. Short stories of the arts and crafts of medieval England.

MEADOWCROFT, ENID. *Ship Boy with Columbus.* The Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York, 1942. Easy-to-read story of a boy who made the famous voyage of discovery.

STEIN, EVALEEN. *Gabriel and the Hour Book.* L. C. Page & Company, Boston, 1906. Story of a French peasant boy who helps to illustrate a beautiful book.

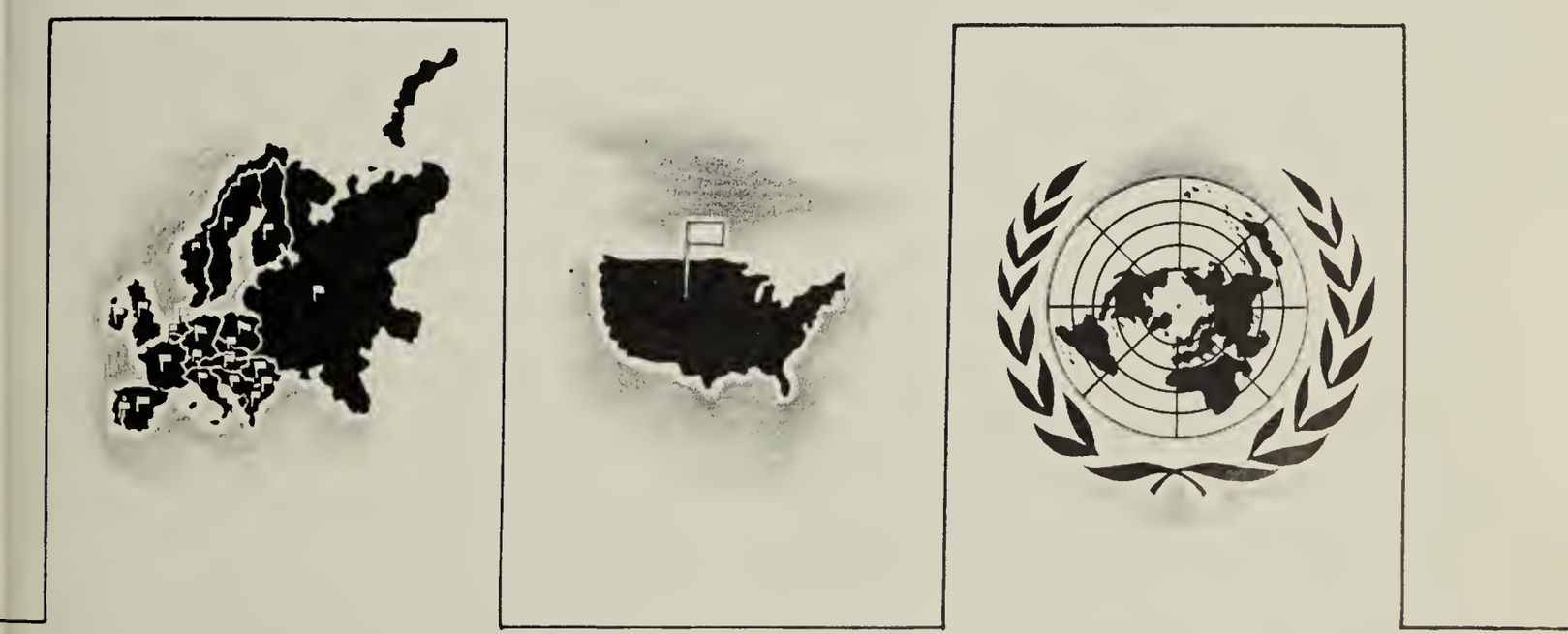
TAPPAN, EVA. *When Knights Were Bold.* Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1911. Life, customs, and castles in the Middle Ages, 8th to the 15th centuries. Many fine pictures.

YONGE, CHARLOTTE M. *Little Duke Richard the Fearless.* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1927. A story about one of the dukes of Normandy and the perils of his childhood and captivity at the court of France, in the tenth century.

Unit Three

Countries of Europe:

Western Nations Learn New Lessons



10. Great Britain: An Island Nation



A Story · A Chance to Choose

Amy took three hungry bites of her dinner. Then she laid down her knife and fork and beamed on her family.

"Today I decided what I am going to be," she said.

"Again?" said her brother, grinning at her.

Will was seventeen, and had left his grammar school. He was going to study science at Cambridge University. Will wanted to design airplanes. Amy thought he was a wonderful person. She had learned not to mind his teasing.

"Yes, again," she said. "I am going to be a doctor."

"That would be useful work, my dear," said her father. "What made you think of it?"

"I have thought of it ever so often," replied Amy, between bites. "But today I saw a woman doctor. Look, this is what happened.

We were coming along on our bicycles through Wimble Village, seven of us. We got going too fast. It was downhill and the road was stony and uneven. Mary's wheel hit a stone and twisted. Mary fell off and hit another stone, a sharp one. It cut her forehead."

"But the Girl Guides knew just what to do," put in Will slyly.

"Now that will do, Will," said his mother. "Let her tell her story."

"It was a deep cut. It bled a lot. We made her lie down in the shade. Joan had her first-aid kit. She got out a bandage to cover the cut. Ann and I ran down the road to get help. Would you believe it, the first house we came to had a sign on it, *Doctor Willis*!"

"Was the doctor there?" asked her mother.

"We rang, and when a woman came we asked for the doctor. 'I'm the doctor,' she said. 'Does someone need help?' How glad we were! She didn't waste any time. Just called a man who was working in her garden on the other side of the house, and ran right up the road with us. When she looked at Mary, she said, 'I'll have to stitch it.' The man picked Mary up and carried her to the doctor's house.

"Joan told me to go in with them, while the rest of the girls waited outside. So I did. The room had a high table-bed where they put Mary. All the tables and shelves were white and shiny, with little instruments in cases. Mary was a good sport; she didn't whimper. Doctor Willis sewed up the cut. It took six stitches. She said Mary was a lucky girl. An inch to one side and she might not be alive."

"She'd be still luckier not to have hit the stone," said Will.

Amy paid no attention. She was thinking about the doctor.

"I'm sure I could do that," she said. "I could keep my hands steady and sew up cuts. Some of the girls don't like the sight of blood, but I don't mind. I could even cut off legs."

"What you want to be is a surgeon," said her father.

"No, I'd like to help sick people, too," insisted Amy, "cure fevers and boils. I talked to Doctor Willis a little. She does all kinds of things, with pills and tonics and vitamins. But she has to fix wounds too, because she is one of the doctors at the steel works. She just happened to be at home because it was Saturday afternoon. Do they have women doctors at your works, Father?"

"No, our doctors are all men. But some works do have a woman on the staff. No reason why a woman couldn't be a surgeon. But it takes years of study and training, and that costs a great deal of money."

"Maybe I could get a scholarship," said Amy, "or a public grant, just as Will did."

"Well, you have plenty of time to think about it," said her mother. "You may change your mind. If you can't afford to study medicine, you can choose some other work. Maybe you'd like to be a nurse. You can be glad anyway that there are so many things open to you. There was a time when women had little choice."

"Or men either," said Will. "Think of the Middle Ages, in the days of the guilds. Every boy just learned his father's trade, without even thinking whether he liked it or not. I should have been superintendent of an engine works, like father, instead of drawing plans for airplanes."

"But the people who lived in the Middle Ages never heard of engines or airplanes," said Amy. "And they hardly knew anything about surgery. They didn't even boil their instruments to kill the germs! They didn't know there *were* germs. I'm glad I live in England in the twentieth century. And I've made up my mind to be a doctor!"

"Yes, you are both fortunate," said her father. "Things were different even when I

was a boy. I had no chance to study as Will is going to do. I began in the factory at the bottom and worked up. But freedom to plan your own life doesn't mean that everything is done for you. You have to solve your own problems—and you'll always have problems.

"If Amy sticks to her notion of being a doctor," he went on, "she'll have the problem of finding a way to get her training. But freedom does mean opportunity. You have a chance, Amy, to try to make your life the kind of life you want."

Great Britain, Mother of Nations

The British Isles are part of Europe. They lie just off the west coast of the mainland, north of France, and west of the Netherlands and Denmark. The group contains two large islands and a great many small ones. Find them on the map on the opposite page. The largest island is Great Britain. Its three divisions are England, Scotland, and Wales. The other large island is Ireland. It is divided into Ireland, or Eire, and Northern Ireland. Farther to the north are the Shetland Islands, where the shaggy little Shetland ponies come from. South of England, close to the French coast, are the Channel Islands, with the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, and Alderney, all of them famous for fine dairy cattle.

The country of Great Britain is officially called the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. All of Ireland was formerly under the rule of the English kings, but the Irish people wanted to be independent, and in 1920, after a long period of bitterness, debate, and fighting, southern Ireland became free. This southern part is called the Republic of Ireland, or Eire. The smaller northern part still belongs to the United Kingdom. Members of the British Parliament are elected by Northern Ireland, Scotland, and Wales as well as by England.

Great Britain is an island nation. In the sixteenth century, English sailors were among the most daring explorers. In the centuries that followed, British colonies were planted on every continent, and people said that the sun never set on the British Empire. Many of these colonies gradually won the right of self-government and independence. These countries, such as Canada, Australia, and the Union of South Africa, are known as *dominions*. They govern themselves and are members of the British family of nations by their own choice. The United Kingdom and the dominions form what is called the British Commonwealth of Nations. Look up the word *commonwealth* in the dictionary and find what it means. The British Empire is made up of colonies and other lands whose governments are under the control of Great Britain. Look at the map on page 196, and you will see how many parts of the world are members of the British Commonwealth and Empire. You can see how large this area is, compared with the very small size of the British Isles themselves. Since the war two nations have used their right to withdraw from the British Commonwealth. Southern Ireland, and Burma, in Asia, have become independent republics. Later we shall read about other parts of the British Commonwealth and Empire. But first let us look at life in Great Britain, the mother country of this widespread group of nations.

Great Britain has a temperate climate. The temperature is neither very hot nor very cold, and it is often damp and cloudy with



The British Isles with an inset map of their coal and iron deposits



The Commonwealth and Empire

many fogs. You can see from the map that it is farther north than the United States, and you would probably think that it would have a colder climate. But this is one of the places where water and winds have as much to do with climate as the distance from the equator.

One of the great ocean currents of the Atlantic is called the Gulf Stream. This runs like a warm river northward from the Gulf of Mexico, along the east coast of North America. Find it on the map on page 197. See how it turns eastward and flows toward the shores of the British Isles and the Scandinavian Peninsula. Here it is called the North Atlantic Drift. The winds that blow from the west across this part of the ocean are warmed by the water and filled with moisture. These winds are called *westerlies*. They bring mild weather, clouds, fog, and rains to Great Britain in winter. During the summer the air over the land becomes warmer. But water changes in temperature much more slowly than air. The waters which surround Great Britain warm up more slowly, and winds from the sea keep the country cool in summer. For this reason the climate of Britain is even and moderate, with plenty of rainfall for growing crops.

This might make us think that the people of Great Britain could raise plenty of food for themselves. That was true at one time, but the Industrial Revolution has made a great difference. Also the population has increased. Today Great Britain is a manufacturing nation, and things manufactured in Great Britain must be traded to other countries for some of the food the British people need.

Great Britain's Highlands and Industry

Geography helped to make Great Britain an industrial nation. Let's see how this happened. The island of Great Britain is very irregular in shape, with many harbors and wide rivers where the sea cuts into the land. It is nearly six hundred miles long, and three hundred miles across where it is widest. Study the map on page 195, where you can locate the three parts of Great Britain. England is the largest part, with Wales on the west and Scotland to the north. Where are the hilly lands of Great Britain? Wales has some very hilly country. But look at Scotland! Here are still higher hills. They can scarcely be called mountains, for very few ridges rise more than three thousand feet above the sea. But compared with the broad fertile lowland it is a rocky highland country. Do you remember the Scotch songs you have heard which tell of the "highland laddies"? There are two important lowland regions in Great Britain. The larger one is in England and makes up the greater part of this country. A smaller lowland forms a narrow belt across south central Scotland.

Now notice the range of hills stretching southward through the northern part of England. This strip of hill country is called the Pennine Chain. It runs down the center of the island like a bumpy backbone, and it is truly the backbone of England's industry. For these rough old Pennine Hills had a great deal to do with the change of work in England, and with the location of industries and factories.

In the first place, the Pennine Chain has an important effect on the climate of northern England. The mild wet westerlies, blowing in from the Atlantic, drop part of their load of moisture on the western side. Here in such valley lands as Lancashire there is plenty of rain for farming. Sheep and cattle are pastured here also. On the eastern side of the Pennines there is less rain. Here the hilly lands of Yorkshire make good grazing country, and have become a great sheep-raising district.

Clothmaking in England. Where so many sheep are raised there is much wool for sale. It is excellent wool, and the people of Yorkshire use it for spinning fine wool yarns and making woolen cloth. The towns of Yorkshire, sometimes called cloth towns, became famous for their fine woolen cloth. Woolen manufacturing began when spinning and weaving were still done by the spinning wheel and hand loom. When spinning and weaving machines were invented, it was here that the factories were built. In the Pennine Hills were tumbling streams to turn the wheels of the mills, and clear water to wash the wool. Then came heavier machinery run by steam power. Right on the east slopes of the Pennines were coal fields, to provide fuel for the steam boilers.

More and still more factories were built. Many of the farms were taken over by sheep raisers, and the farmers went to town to work in the factories. The towns grew larger and busier. Look on your map for the towns of Leeds, York, Huddersfield, and Bradford. These old cloth towns are now thriving factory cities. The wool produced in England is not nearly enough to supply all the factory looms, and wool is brought in ships from Australia, South Africa, and Argentina. English cloth is

The Gulf Stream and North Atlantic Drift



known throughout the world for its high quality.

Cotton is not grown in England, because the climate is too cool and damp. The men who built factories to spin cotton and weave cotton cloth chose the west side of the Pennine Chain. Find the port of Liverpool on your map. Here the ships docked with their cargoes of cotton from the United States, India, and Egypt. Here the climate is moist, and this is good for spinning cotton threads. If the air is dry the threads snap and break. The cotton mills, too, at first needed streams to turn their wheels and clear water to wash the cotton. Later, when steam was used, coal fields on the western slopes of the Pennines were ready to provide the fuel for steam. The town of Manchester, not far from Liverpool, is the center of the cotton industry.

The cotton is no longer unloaded at Liverpool. A deep ship canal was dredged along the Mersey River. Find this river on your map. Huge ocean cargo boats, called freighters, can steam directly through to Manchester. Here are miles of docks with hundreds of great cranes. These cranes lift the bales from the ship's hold into smaller ships which carry them down other canals to other towns, or into trucks which deliver them to factories. Other materials also are brought to England on these ships. Flax comes from Ireland and from some places on the continent of Europe to be woven into linen. Different kinds of cloth, silk, linen, wool, and cotton, are called *textiles*. The mak-

British mills are working hard to increase British commerce





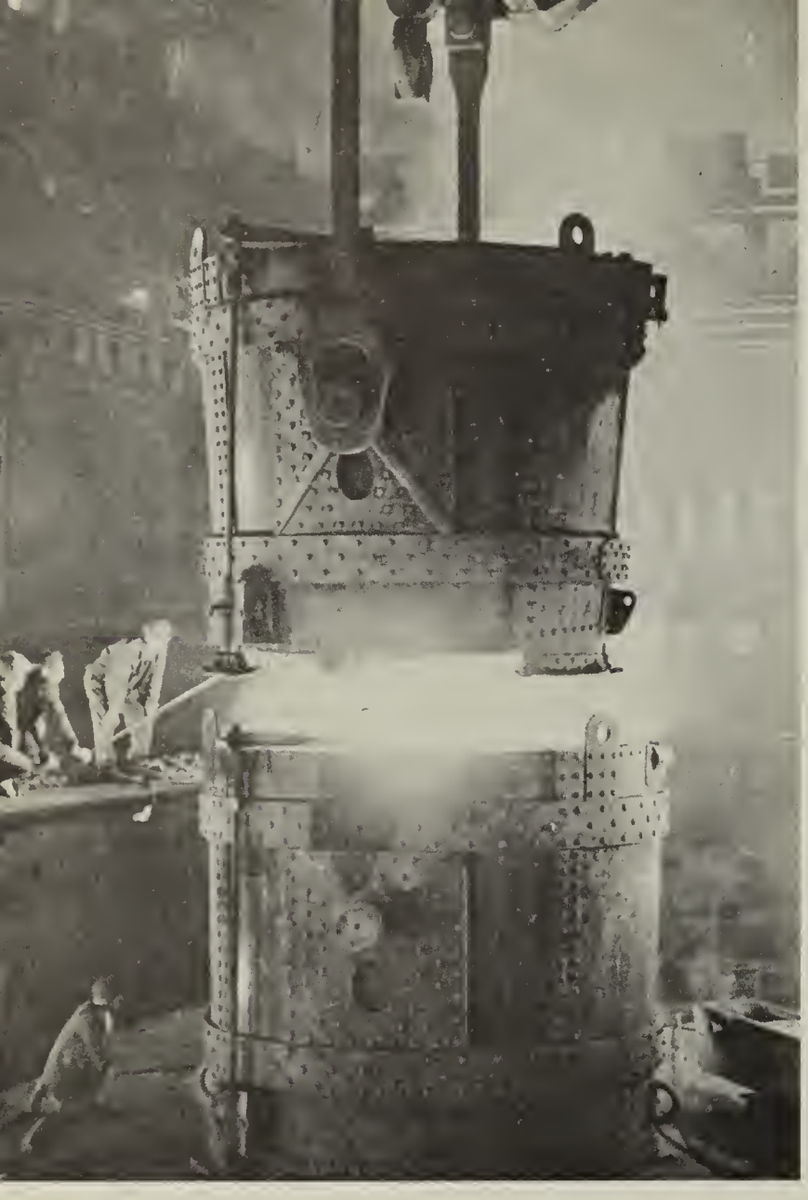
The Manchester ship canal

ing of textiles is one of the most important industries in England. To ship goods out of a country in trade is to export them. England exports textiles to many countries.

This is the way the Pennine Hills helped to guide the growing industry of England. Cloth is by no means the only thing made in these busy manufacturing centers. Think how many other things must be done where great factories are running. The textile factories use machines, made of many small parts, and the people who run the machines need tools of special kinds for doing special work. There are factories which make these parts and tools. There are other factories which make chemicals to bleach, or whiten, the cloth, or to dye it different colors. Each great industry brings with it many connected industries.

England's iron. We have already seen how important it was for the textile factories to find coal nearby in the Pennine Hills. Just as important is the great supply of iron ore. Study the inset map on page 195 to help you find England's iron deposits. At the southern end of the Pennine Chain the hills drop suddenly to a plain, which was once covered with forests. After a time, in the forest clearings, mines were opened, for both coal and iron were found underground. When the Industrial Revolution began, the forests soon disappeared. The trees were cut to get timber for building factories and machines. Later most of the machinery was made from iron and more and more iron was mined. Hot furnaces were needed to smelt the iron ore. Smelting means separating the iron from the rock materials in the ore. Coal was used to heat the furnaces for smelting the iron; and coke, made from coal, was mixed with the iron ore in the furnaces. This district became the center of England's iron and steel industry, as it still is today. Smoke pours from the chimneys of the smelters and factories, and the very sky is dark. On all sides are towering heaps of black slag, or cinders, the refuse from the smelting furnaces. "The Black Country," people call it.

Find the city of Birmingham on your map. This is the manufacturing center for all kinds of iron and steel goods. Steel, you know, is made from iron. Sometimes other metals are mixed with it to make it harder, or easier to bend, or rust proof. Every British school child knows the saying, "Birmingham makes everything from a pin to a steam engine." Factories large and small crowd Birmingham



This great ladle in a steel mill pours eighty tons of molten metal

and overflow into the towns around it. Coventry, the automobile center, is only eighteen miles away. Birmingham is the middle of a web of railroads and a network of canals. These canals link four great ports of England: London, Liverpool, Hull, and Bristol. They also connect the manufacturing towns with the places from which they get the materials they need.

Another steel center is the hilly Yorkshire city of Sheffield. Sheffield has become famous for its fine plated silver. It is also well known for its knives, scissors, and other fine cutting tools, such as the instruments that surgeons use. The stainless steel which we like to have in our kitchens was a Sheffield discovery. The waters of Sheffield's rivers are very pure, and this makes the city a good place for the manufacture of chemicals and paper.

Great Britain's coal. We have seen how important the Pennine coal is for the textile mills and the great iron and steel factories. Three other places in Great Britain have coal in abundance. One of them is north of Cardiff, on the southern coast of Wales. Find this region on your map. Cardiff is a great coaling port, where ships put in to get their fuel. Coal is shipped from Cardiff to many great ports all over the world. The other two coal centers are also shipping centers. Newcastle, on the Tyne River, is in the northeast corner of England, and Glasgow is in the western part of Scotland on the Clyde River. Locate these cities on your map.

Coal was found at Newcastle in the thirteenth century by the monks of a nearby monastery. For hundreds of years coal has been shipped from Newcastle to other ports. Oddly enough, Newcastle is about ten miles from the sea. It is a seaport because the Tyne River is very wide, and deep enough for ocean vessels.

Glasgow, like Newcastle, is inland from the sea but is also a great port. The Clyde River has been deepened so ocean-going ships can come up the river. Both coal and iron come from mines near Glasgow, which is another very large and busy manufacturing center. Heavy steel rails, locomotives, and machinery of all sorts are manufactured here and shipped out of the harbor to countries all over the world. Here, too, there is a great deal of shipbuilding. The Clyde River is connected with the Firth of Forth, on the east coast, by a ship canal. If you look at your map you will see that this is one of the places in Scotland where the sea almost cuts the land in two. What two seas does this canal join? It was

in Glasgow that James Watt made his steam engine. Here in this canal the world's first steamboat was tried out. Glasgow is the second largest city in Great Britain.

England's pottery. Between the cotton district of Manchester and the steel region around Birmingham lies another busy center, called The Potteries. Here, in Stoke-on-Trent and in a cluster of other little towns, pottery is made. The pottery trade began long ago in these villages. The land was poor, and the farmers could not make a good living. They dug clay in their gardens, made bowls and dishes, and burned them hard in their ovens, or *kilns*. They became very skillful at making these bowls and dishes and sold them. When machines came into use the people of these towns built factories to make dishes.

But fine dishes even now cannot be made entirely by machinery. Much still depends on skilled handwork, and on careful selection of good materials. Fine clays and minerals come to The Potteries from all over England, and even from other countries. Almost all of England's pottery industry is located in this one district.

The ships of Great Britain. Great Britain is an island country, and manufactures things which other countries need and want. She has thousands of ships to carry her wares all over the world and bring back raw materials to be used in her factories. In the wide-spreading shipyards of Glasgow many of these ships are built. Other shipyards stretch along the Tyne River near Newcastle, along the Tees and the Wear rivers farther to the south, and

Two boys learn to work a coal vein



along the Thames near London. Belfast, in Northern Ireland, is another shipbuilding city.

All kinds of ships are built in these shipyards, great passenger liners and cargo ships, large and small. Some of these are refrigerator ships, which will carry fresh fruit or meat for long distances. Some are huge oil tankers. Then there are tugs, the important little ships which push and pull the great vessels into their places at the docks.

Shipbuilding is one of the most important industries in Great Britain. Ships are built not only for Great Britain but for many other nations. Besides the people who work at shipbuilding, many are employed in ship-repairing. Scattered along the coasts are dockyards where ships can lay up for repairs. And finally, there are numerous factories which make things needed on ships, such as pumps, motors, machines, cables, pipes.

The Commerce of Great Britain

Where do the ships of Great Britain go? All over the globe. English shipyards build ships for people of other nations as well as for British shipowners. But the British own a large part of the world's ships. They carry cargoes from port to port on every ocean. Because of widespread British trading connections, they carry many goods for Europe.

London, the capital of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the largest city in Europe, is located on the Thames River about forty miles from its mouth. It is sometimes called the "front door of Europe." Into the Thames come thousands of ships, large and small, from all parts of the world. Here are many miles of docks. Long ago the shores of the river became too crowded. Swamp lands were drained and inland docking basins were built. Ships enter these basins through canals. There are more than 600 acres of docks like these, with 30 miles of wharves along which the ships unload their cargoes.

Part of these goods is loaded immediately onto trucks or railroad cars or flat-bottomed boats called barges, to be carried to different parts of Great Britain. But a large part of the merchandise from the ships does not go into London at all. It is loaded at once onto other ships, or stored in warehouses until it can be shipped. It may be bound for cities in Belgium, the Netherlands, Sweden, or some distant country.

The Port of London is like a great store where buyers from Europe can find whatever they want: tea from India, coffee from Brazil, wine from Portugal, wool from Australia, silk from Japan, hemp from Manila. It is managed by a group of officials called the Port of London Authority. These men have entire charge of the great port. They must see that docks are kept in repair, that great warehouses are built, that all ships have a place to tie up and unload their cargoes. They make rules about the traffic—the trucks and barges and cargo carriers. Thousands of people work under the direction of the Port of London Authority, doing everything connected with this great task of shipping goods in and out through the "front door" of Europe.

Who produces the food for the British people? Millions of people in Great Britain work in factories, in mines, in shipyards and docks. Where does the food come from to feed them all? In the rough grazing lands of Wales and Scotland there are many cattle and sheep. Often the animals are brought to the green pastures of central and eastern England to be fattened for market. Here and in the southern

and southeastern part of England is good farm land also. Northeast of London it is dry enough for wheat-growing. But the damp English climate is better for oats than for wheat. In the country about London are vegetable farms and some dairying. But the great dairy region is in the southwestern part of England, in the counties of Cornwall and Devon.

The stormy, cold waters of the North Sea provide fish in great quantity. Find the ports of Grimsby and Hull on the east coast of England, and Aberdeen on the Scottish coast north of them. Here fishermen for hundreds of years have brought in fish as an important food for the British people. The small ports around London also have fleets of fishing boats which supply the great London markets.

But the farms and fisheries of Great Britain do not provide enough food for the more than 50,000,000 people who live in the United Kingdom. A great deal of food must come in the cargo ships which dock at the Port of London. Bringing goods into a country is called *importing*. Meat and fruit are imported from Australia and South America, wheat from Canada, Argentina, and Australia, oranges from Spain and the United States. Dairy products, canned vegetables and fish, and many other articles of food come from other countries to the British dinner tables. Before the Second World War the people of Great

An ocean liner loads at the port of London



Britain imported two thirds of their food. During the war the ships were needed for soldiers and war materials, and many ships were sunk. Then the British people fared badly for food. With new farm machinery much unused land was put under cultivation. Great Britain in the future may not depend so much on other countries for food.

How are the British people solving their problems? Great Britain is an industrial nation. This means that most of her people earn their living in manufacturing. Britain has faced in the past many of the problems which arose out of the Industrial Revolution, which we have already read about. The British have been able to solve some of these problems, but others still remain.

Britain has a democratic government, which is in some ways like our own. The British Parliament makes laws, just as our Congress does, and the members of Parliament are chosen by the people, as the members of our Congress are. The freedom which the British people have makes it possible for them to keep working at their problems. There are men and women who study bad conditions and try to find the right way to improve them. They want to change the ugly and crowded manufacturing cities, which grew up during the Industrial Revolution, and to make better houses for the people. They want to find ways for city people to enjoy the grass and trees and fresh air of the country. They are making plans so that it will be possible for more British children to have a good education and a better chance to go to the universities of Oxford, Cambridge, London, Edinburgh, and Dublin. For good education, as we have seen, can help us in solving the most difficult problems, and can help us toward a fuller and happier life.

Divided Ireland

Ireland is less hilly than the island of Great Britain, and the climate is a bit milder. Here, too, the westerly winds bring plentiful rains, and the grass grows thick and green, so green that Ireland is often called the Emerald Isle. The island is shaped a little like a flat bowl, with a lowland region across the central part and higher land in the north and south. Through the center of the island winds the River Shannon, well known through Irish songs, and there are many beautiful little lakes.

Northern Ireland, as we know, is a part of the United Kingdom. As we learn more about the people of Ireland we shall understand better why the island is divided as it is. More than three hundred years ago many English and Scottish people invaded Northern Ireland. They brought with them their English and Scottish ideas and ways of living. The English also controlled the rest of Ireland and tried to keep all the Irish people under British rule. They failed, except in Northern Ireland, which remained united with Great Britain after southern Ireland won its independence.

Northern Ireland has an industrial region, like much of Great Britain. Belfast is the capital and the largest city. Here is one of the world's largest shipbuilding yards. Belfast has factories which make engines and machinery. On the map on page 195 locate the harbor of Belfast on the North Channel of the Irish Sea. Across this narrow channel is Glasgow, Scotland, with great coal and iron supplies.

But the product for which Belfast is most famous is linen. For miles here in Northern Ireland, fields of flax blossom in the spring. From the flax fibers, linen thread is spun. In the factories of Belfast and the neighboring



Flax is soaked so that the fibers can be removed to make thread

towns this thread is woven into linen cloth of all kinds, and into beautiful laces. Irish linen is among the finest in the world, and Belfast is the center for its manufacture. Such quantities of linen and lace are manufactured here that much flax has to be brought in from other countries to supply the factories.

Northern Ireland has a rich agricultural region as well, and butter, bacon, and eggs are exported to England.

The Republic of Ireland is very different. It is not industrial but *agricultural*; that is, it is a farming country. Most of the people do not live in factory towns, but in small villages or on little farms that spread across the green country like patchwork. Oats, barley, and vegetables, especially potatoes, grow on these farms.

Potatoes have been an important crop in southern Ireland ever since they were brought there from the New World about three hundred years ago. About a hundred years ago, bad weather caused the potato crop to fail. This happened for several years in a row. Thousands of poor people starved. Others went into debt to buy food and lost all the money they had. Still other thousands packed their belongings and set forth to the United States to find new homes and a better way to live. Dennis and his brother, in the story at the beginning of this book, were among these hopeful emigrants who left their homes for the New World.

Much of the farming country of the Republic of Ireland is green pasture land. Fine horses are bred, and in summer herds of cattle graze on the thick green grass. Dairying is an important industry, but cattle are raised for meat



Bringing home freshly cut peat

as well as for milk. Chickens and pigs are raised, and bacon is exported to England, along with dairy products and potatoes.

The lowland region in the center of Ireland is sometimes too swampy for crops. Here in wide areas the tangled leafy plants and grasses grow so thick that they form a heavy mat which decays in the swamps. This mat of decayed grass is called *peat*, and is valued as fuel. There is little coal in Ireland, and there are almost no forests to supply firewood. Men go into the swamps or bogs and cut the peat in blocks which are then dried in the sun. The dried peat is taken to the towns, or peddled about the countryside in carts. People buy it for fuel to warm their cottages and heat their ovens. They also chop it up and put it on their gardens to make the soil richer.

Dublin, capital of the Republic of Ireland, is the largest city on the island. It is the chief port, and the home of Ireland's great university.

Some Questions to Help You to Remember the British Isles

1. Where are the British Isles?
2. What are the two largest islands, and what are their divisions?
3. How does the Atlantic Ocean influence the climate of Great Britain?
4. How do the Pennine Hills influence the climate of northern England?
5. Great Britain is an industrial country. What does this mean?
6. How and where do the British people get their food?
7. How did the wool industry of England come to be located where it is?
8. Where was the cotton industry built up? Why?
9. Why does the steel industry need both iron and coal?
10. What materials for Britain's manufactures are found in Great Britain?
11. What materials are imported from other countries?
12. Why is shipbuilding important to Britain?
13. In what way is Northern Ireland like Great Britain?
14. How do most of the people in the Republic of Ireland earn their living? What is exported?

A Talk about Industry Today

1. Could cotton be woven in any country now? Why?
2. Does woolen cloth have to be made in a sheep-raising country?
3. Would it be better for Great Britain to raise enough food for all her people than to exchange manufactured goods for part of the food?
4. How do you think the automobile has changed industry and commerce?
5. How is the airplane changing them?

Interesting Things to Do

1. Get a book of Robert Burns's poems and find some that tell about life in Scotland in his

day—what the people did, how they worked, and how they played.

2. Divide the class into groups to collect pictures of industrial workers and the different products they manufacture. Let one group collect pictures of the manufacture of iron and steel, and products made from them, another group wool, another cotton, and other groups other products. Make a frieze for the schoolroom using these pictures, cut from magazine advertisements and other places.

3. Start a scrapbook of newspaper clippings about Great Britain, and continue it with clippings about other countries of Europe. Choose articles which tell you something about each country's products, its problems, or its government.

4. Have a "song fest" in which the class sings songs of the British Isles. Some songs are suggested below, and many others from Scotland, Wales, and Ireland can be found in any good collection of old or favorite songs.

The Wearing of the Green (Irish)
The Blue Bells of Scotland (Scotch)
The Campbells are Coming (Scotch)
Men of Harlech (Welsh)
A-hunting we will go (English)
Come Back to Erin (Irish)
Annie Laurie (Scotch)
Ben Bolt (English)
Auld Lang Syne (Scotch)
Oh, dear, what can the matter be (English)

5. The United States has been greatly influenced by Great Britain. Make a list of these influences, such as language, immigrants, literature, and so forth. You can put some of your favorite books on this list. The class may enjoy discussing some of these lists, and a sample list can be put on the blackboard.

A Matching Game

Copy List 1 in your notebook. After each name in List 1, put the number of the phrase from List 2 that you think belongs with it. When you think you have them all matched correctly, write in the right phrase following the number.

List 1

North Atlantic Drift	James Watt
Charles and Mary Lamb	Pennine Hills
Yorkshire	Sheffield
Dublin	Manchester
Mersey River	Port of London
Belfast	Newcastle
The Black Country	Glasgow
Birmingham	Republic of Ireland
Grimsby and Hull	

List 2

1. First steam engine
2. "Front door of Europe"
3. Westerlies
4. Linen cloth and lace
5. Cloth towns
6. Ship canal
7. Stainless steel
8. Bacon and potatoes
9. Locomotives and machinery manufactured
10. Smelting
11. Fishing fleets
12. Coal exporting
13. Tales from Shakespeare
14. Capital of the Republic of Ireland
15. Center of the cotton industry
16. Everything from pins to steam engines
17. The backbone of British industry

11. Europe Today: Problems of Peace

A Story · New Dikes and New Ideas

It was great fun at Amsterdam. Joel Russell did not want to leave when his father prepared to go to attend to further business.

"Could Joel stay here, Mr. Russell, while you go on to Brussels?" asked Hendrik. "He could, couldn't he, Mother?"

Mrs. Stork smiled at the boys, and said in her pleasant, quiet voice, "He could, indeed, if Mr. Russell says so."

That was how it happened that Joel had two weeks instead of two days in the big Dutch seaport, two happy weeks full of interesting sights and new experiences. Hendrik Stork was older than Joel; he was almost fifteen. He spoke English very well, and seemed to enjoy explaining life in the Netherlands to his young American visitor.

The old city was wonderful to Joel's eyes. Besides the streets, hundreds of canals threaded the city, along which the traffic glided in boats. The boys rode their bicycles every day in a new direction, over the canals on bridges, and out into the country along the dikes that protected the fields.

Most interesting of all was the harbor district, where all the big cargo ships lay side by side. It was fun to watch a ship unload, the huge cranes swinging heavy crates and boxes to the wharf. It was fun to follow the rumbling trucks as they carried the crates into the warehouses. Hendrik's father was in the shipping business, with an office near the harbor, and Hendrik knew his way all over the wholesale district and among the factories.

"I hope I can remember all these things to tell Dad," said Joel one morning. The boys were walking through a packing plant. The air was full of the toasty sweet smell of roasting coffee. Round and round went the big containers, like shining metal drums, as the coffee was roasted, ground, and sealed in cans, ready to be shipped to faraway places.

"Are these different kinds of coffee beans?" asked Joel, looking into a glass case.

"It's all the same kind of coffee," answered Hendrik, "but some of it has been roasted longer. Those yellowish ones are raw beans, just as they come out of the sacks we saw coming in from the ship. These others are roasted beans. Some people like it roasted browner than others do."

They passed through a smaller room, where Joel stopped to look at a row of pictures hanging on the wall. They were colored photographs from Java, the islands where the coffee grew.

"Those are coffee trees," explained Hendrik. "My father has been in Java and has seen them in bloom. He says they are very sweet-smelling. The berry is red like a cherry, and the seed is the coffee-bean, two in each berry. A coffee tree has enough seeds every year to make about two pounds of coffee."

"It takes a lot of work to turn them into coffee, though," said Joel.

"Yes," agreed Hendrik. "They call it a 'process.' Everything that comes from the Indies has to be processed some way before it is ready for market,—tea, rubber, and petroleum,—as well as coffee. Now you will see another process. I bet you can guess what they make here."



Hendrik's clear blue eyes twinkled with fun as he opened a heavy door. There was no need to tell Joel. He just gave one sniff.

"Chocolate!" he said.

Hendrik nodded. "Chocolate and cocoa; they come from the same seed, the cacao bean."

"I've always wondered just how they were different," said Joel.

As they walked along beside the machines Joel found out. The workmen nodded in a friendly way at Hendrik and made room for the boys to see everything that was going on. They saw the brown cacao beans poured into a big horn-shaped box called a hopper, and carried into a machine which broke them into pieces and blew the husks away. These pieces were called "nibs." Then the little brown nibs went under heavy grinding stones. The next thing the boys saw was a stream of thick brown chocolate, flowing into molds and cooling into bars.

"Did they melt it?" asked Joel.

"Well, the cacao beans are more than half oil," said Hendrik, "and the grinding warms them enough to melt them. Some machines add sugar and vanilla and pour out sweet chocolate bars. Now I'll show you the difference between chocolate and cocoa."



In the next machine the cacao nibs were not ground, but pressed under heavy rollers. Out flowed a stream of clear, light-colored oil which hardened into a pale butter.

"That is cocoa butter," said Hendrik. "It is used in medicines and face creams. After the oil is pressed out the nibs are ground fine, making the dry brown powder which is cocoa. It is not so rich as chocolate, you see, since most of the oil has been taken out."

The next day Mr. Russell returned, and that evening the two boys walked with their fathers along one of the high canal banks. Joel told his father how many things he had learned, and Mr. Russell nodded smiling.

"The wealth of the Netherlands has come from overseas trade and the industries connected with it. The people of course suffered a lot in the Second World War, but the Dutch people have always been famous for their courage and hard work. That, I suppose, is their real wealth. That was what made this land."

He waved his hand across the low-lying green fields.

"I know," said Joel. "Hendrik has told me about the old times when they cut the dikes, and let in the sea to drive back their enemies. During the war it was the Germans who blew up dikes. Miles of fields were ruined."

"The dikes have been rebuilt," said Mr. Stork, "but it will be some time before the land will recover completely from the poison of the salt water. It will take a long while for trees to grow again. Gradually the rains wash the salt out of the earth, though, and already the fields are beginning to produce. Yes, we Dutchmen are a brave and hard-working people. We know how to look ahead."

"The Dutch will have to look ahead right now," said Mr. Russell. "Their business is trade among nations, and of course war ruins that kind of business. The Dutch people, Mr. Stork, will have to be among those who lead the way to lasting peace."

"You are quite right, my friend," said Mr. Stork. "All the people of Europe must think out the way to peace. It will not be easy. New ideas must be built and held, as well as new dikes. And only courage and determination and hard work can find the way."

The Nations of Europe Today

The problem of peace. The story you have just read tells of life in one small European country. But the problem of finding the way to peace belongs to all the nations of Europe. It belongs, indeed, to all the nations of the world. Nations in Europe are close together and must face their problems together, the problems of getting food and improving the life of their peoples. Study the globe pictures on page 15. Notice the size and location of Europe. It is a small continent, or rather it is the small western end of the large continent of Eurasia. In area it is only a little larger than the United States. Yet this small part of the world contains more than twenty nations, and many of them have possessions or business interests in all parts of the world.

In the first half of this book we followed Europe's story from earliest times down to the twentieth century. We found out how the continent broke up into nations, how some of these nations grew strong. We found out how some of the people of these nations won freedom and democracy. Other countries and peoples, however, never became strong enough to defend their rights or lands. They were conquered by stronger countries or divided among other nations. The boundary lines of nations were often changed, and groups of people were passed from one government to another. Europe has been a battlefield many times, and for long periods at a time.

The world of the Air Age has become so small that war in Europe means war all over the world. During the first half of the twentieth century two great wars began in Europe: in 1914 and again in 1939. Both these wars became world wars, in which many countries were engaged. Millions of soldiers and civilians were killed, property was destroyed, and everywhere there was misery and suffering. War in the Air Age became not only a war between armies, but a "total" war, in which cities were bombed to ruins and millions of helpless people were killed. The Second World War ended in 1945, but we can still see the results in many parts of Europe and Asia. It will take years to repair and rebuild many of the bombed cities.

Europe today. On pages 212 and 213 is a map of Europe showing the nations of today. What large country takes in the eastern half of Europe? We have not yet studied Russia. Because it is so large and so important, and also because most of it lies in Asia, we shall study it separately in the following chapter. The other parts of Europe we shall study one at a time. We shall look first at the northern peninsulas that stretch toward the Arctic, then at the Atlantic countries, third at the Mediterranean lands, and finally at central and southeastern Europe. As you read about the countries of Europe you will find it helpful to study the rainfall map on page 216.


EUROPE
Plains
Hills
Plateaus
Mountains
Glasgow Over 1,000,000 people
Dublin 500,000 to 1,000,000 people
Stettin 100,000 to 500,000 people
Rabat Under 100,000 people
★ Capital of a country
0
290
One inch equals 290 miles
ARCTIC OCEAN
ARCTIC CIRCLE
ICELAND
NORTH ATLANTIC OCEAN
SHETLAND IS.
NORWAY
SWEDEN
Bergen
Oslo
Stock
HEBRIDES
ORKNEY IS.
SCOTLAND
North Sea
NORTHERN IRELAND
Glasgow
Edinburgh
PENNINES
Belfast
Irish Sea
Dublin
IRELAND
GREAT BRITAIN
Liverpool
WALES
ENGLAND
DENMARK
Copenhag
Hamburg
Stettin
The Hague
NETHERLANDS
Bremen
Elbe R.
Berlin
London
English Channel
CHANNEL ISLANDS
Calais
BELGIUM
Brussels
Rhine R.
GERMANY
Dresden
Le Havre
Paris
Seine R.
PARIS BASIN
Meuse R.
Nürnberg
CZECHOSLOV
Prague
Nantes
Loire R.
River
Danube R.
Munich
Vienna
Bay of Biscay
FRANCE
Lyon
Berne
SWITZERLAND
JURA MTS.
AUSTRIA
Bordeaux
Garonne R.
Milan
Venice
Po River
Genoa
Parma
CANTABRIAN MTS.
Ebro River
PYRENEES
Rhône R.
Marseille
Leghorn
Florence
Oporto
PORTUGAL
Madrid
Tagus R.
Lisbon
SPAIN
Valencia
Barcelona
CORSICA
Rome
ITALY
APENNINES
Guadalquivir R.
Seville
Malaga
BALEARIC IS.
SARDINIA
Naples
Strait of Gibraltar
Mediterranean
SICILY
AFRICA
10°
5°
0°
5°
10°
15°
212


Murmansk
ARCTIC CIRCLE
Arkhangelsk
KARELO FINNISH S.S.R.
Leningrad
RUSSIAN SOVIET FEDERATED SOCIALIST REPUBLIC
Volga River
Moscow
UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS
URAL MOUNTAINS
Sverdlovsk
Magnitogorsk
Ob River
Irtysh River
Tobol River
Ural River
SIBERIA
KAZAKH S.S.R.
WHITE RUSSIAN S.S.R.
Kiev
Kharkov
Donets River
Don River
Stalingrad
UKRAINIAN S.S.R.
MOLDAVIAN S.S.R.
Dnepr R.
Odessa
Sea of Azov
Aral Sea
UZBEK S.S.R.
TURKMEN S.S.R.
Caspian Sea
CAUCASUS MTS.
GEORGIAN S.S.R.
AZERBAIDZHAN S.S.R.
ARMENIAN S.S.R.
Baku
Batum
Bucharest
Constanta
Danube R.
BULGARIA
Sofia
Black Sea
Istanbul
Sea of Marmara
Bursa
Bafra
Samsun
Ankara
ANATOLIAN PLATEAU
TURKEY
Tehran
PLATEAU OF IRAN
Aegean Sea
Smyrna
Athens
Menderes (Meander)
RHODES
Adana
Aleppo
Mosul
SYRIA
Tigris
Baghdad
Euphrates River
IRAQ
CYPRUS
CRETE
Sea
LEBANON
Beirut
Damascus
Amman
HASHEMITE JORDAN
Tel Aviv
Jerusalem
SAUDI-ARABIA
Basra
Persian Gulf
55°
50°
45°
40°
35°
30°
25°
40°
45°
50°

The two peninsulas of northern Europe are often called Scandinavia. They were the home of the vikings, bold and restless Northmen. The three Scandinavian countries today are democratically governed kingdoms. Denmark occupies its own small peninsula and some large neighboring islands. On the larger peninsula you will notice that Norway is separated from Sweden by a long ridge of mountains. As you study the map on page 215 look at the inset map which shows you the position of these countries in Europe.

Norway lies along the western coast. You will see from the map that Norway is rugged and mountainous to the very border of the sea. Yet there are many small farms, fitted into the valleys and climbing the hillsides, wherever a bit of land is level enough for the plow. Many of the farms run steeply to the sea, and the farmer has his own wharf and boathouse. Cattle are pastured on the high slopes, and hay is cut in hillside meadows. Milk cans or loads of hay are sometimes lowered by a special cable to the farmyard below.

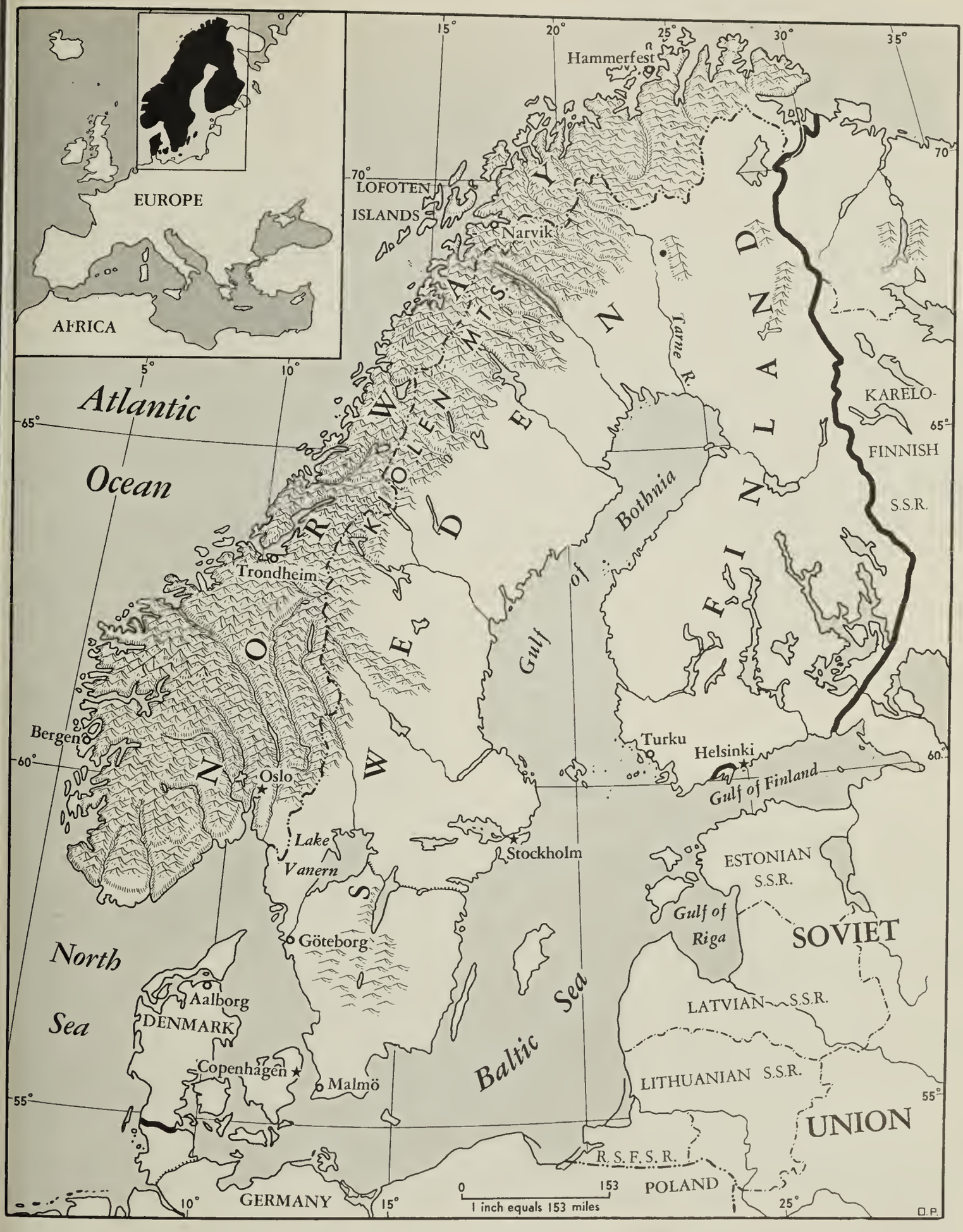
Much of the soil is poor, but the people of Norway have learned the use of chemical fertilizers. Summers are short, but during the summer the days are long, with sixteen or eighteen hours of sunlight. This makes the grain ripen quickly. About one third of the people of Norway get their living from the soil. The best agricultural lands are in the lowlands and in the valleys in the southern part of the country. Here hay, potatoes, and grain are raised, but Norway must import wheat and several other foodstuffs.

Before drying fish Norwegian workers dip them in water

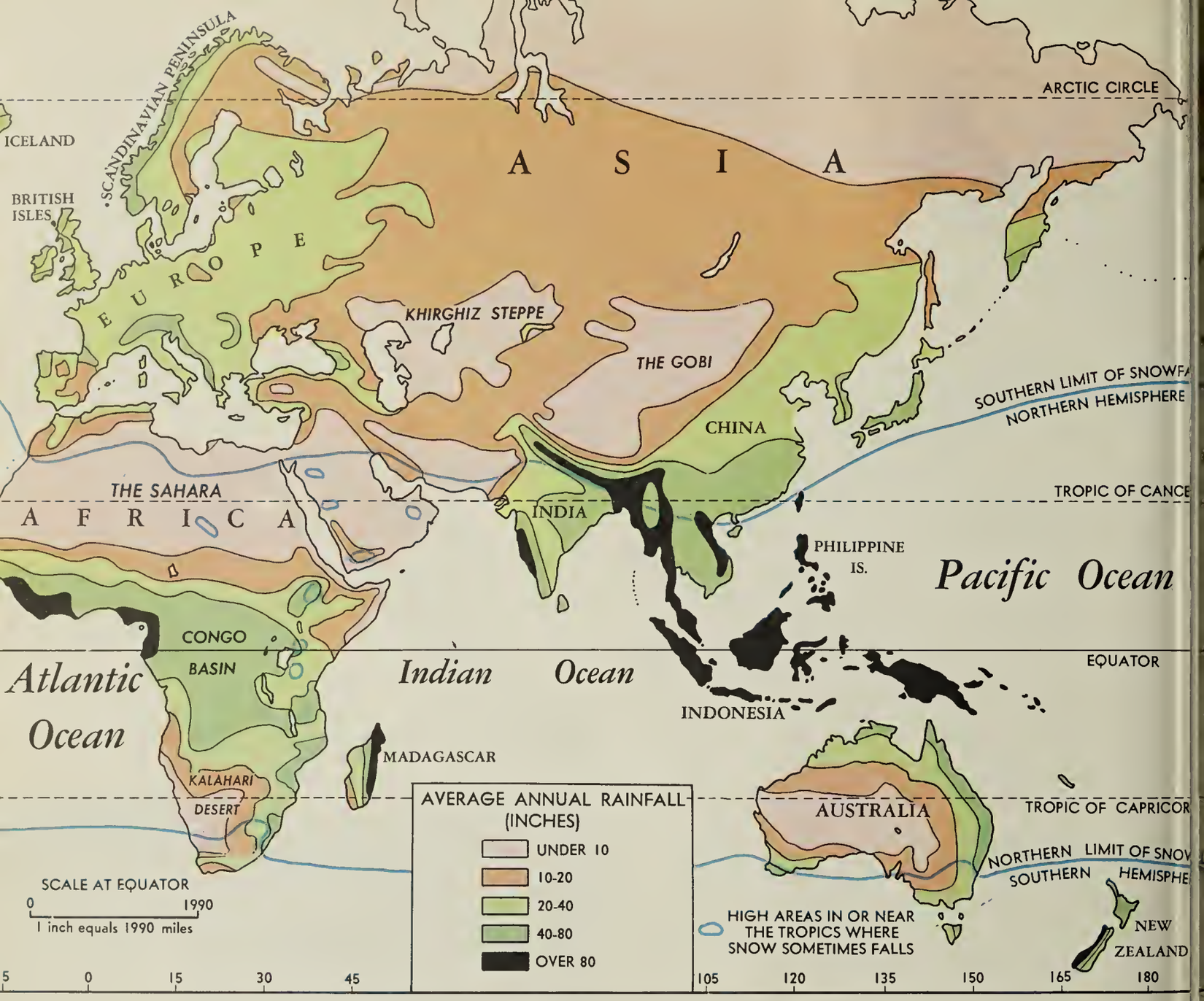


A great source of wealth is the sea. The map shows you that the coast line of Norway is long and irregular. Deep, narrow bays, called fiords, run far inland and provide quiet water for ships along the entire coast. Although Norway is so far to the north, the climate is surprisingly mild. Westerly winds from the Atlantic and the warm waters of the North Atlantic Drift temper the air and keep all the harbors ice-free even in winter. With the scarcity of good farm land, and with forests to supply the timber for ships, it is little wonder that the Norwegians took to the sea.

All the ports are fishing centers, and many of the people of Norway make their living by fishing and preparing the fish and fish products. Norway exports a tremendous amount of salted, smoked, dried, and canned fish. In the waters near the islands along the northern part of the coast are great cod and herring fisheries,



Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and Finland



Rainfall map of Eurasia, Africa, and Australia

where hundreds of thousands of tons of fish are caught every year. Large factories in this region prepare fish oil. Herring are caught also in the waters surrounding southern Norway, and every year Norwegian fleets make their way to the South Atlantic and Antarctic waters to hunt for whales.

Oslo, the capital of Norway, is a busy, modern city; and Bergen is the center of fish-exporting. Norway has a very large fleet of merchant ships. Being seafarers and shipbuilders, the people of Norway carry some of the trade of other countries in Norwegian ships.

Norway's forests are another source of wealth. The steep slopes of the mountains are covered with forests, which provide lumber and wood for many purposes. A great deal of spruce goes into wood pulp, which is used to make paper. Both paper and pulp are exported to Britain and the United States and other countries. The factories which produce pulp and paper are run by electricity obtained from mountain streams. The force of the



Farms fit into valleys, climb hillsides, and run steeply to the sea

stream turns a wheel, and a dynamo changes the power of the water into electric current. This kind of power is called hydroelectric power. *Hydro* means "water." Two important industries in Norway use hydroelectric power. One makes fertilizers from nitrogen in the air. The other manufactures aluminum from ore which is brought in from other countries.

Sweden is Norway's neighbor to the east. You can see that it is a larger country than Norway. Sweden is also colder. The mountains between the two countries shut off the warm Atlantic winds, and the northeastern harbors of Sweden freeze over in winter.

Forests, which are one of Sweden's great sources of wealth, are cared for wisely. Any trees which are removed are always replaced with young trees. The trees are cut in winter, the logs are piled beside the streams, and in the spring the floods carry them down the rivers to the sawmills. Here they are made into planks, timbers, matches, charcoal, pulp, and paper. Timber and pulpwood are shipped in great quantity to Denmark and Britain, for the forests of those countries were used up long ago. The Swedes invented safety matches, and machines to make them.

Sweden has rich deposits of iron. Large iron and steel plants employ thousands of workers, but much of the iron ore is exported. Sweden

Swedish loggers direct logs for wood pulp downstream to the mill





Spread on this high rack, hay dries quickly in the sun

has only a small amount of coal. Some iron ore is smelted with charcoal, which makes an especially fine metal. Iron ore is also smelted by electricity. Hydroelectric power runs the sawmills and the steel mills, and other factories.

Many of the people of Sweden are farmers. The southern part of Sweden is a wide lowland plain. This is not only the greatest industrial district and shipping center, but the greatest agricultural section. It is sometimes called the garden of Sweden, because of its spreading grainfields. Many of the farmers raise cattle, hogs, and sheep, and dairying is an important industry.

Stockholm, the capital, is the most important city in Sweden. It is very beautiful, and has been called the "Venice of the North," because it is built on a number of peninsulas and islands.

East of Norway and Sweden lies Finland. Finland extends along the eastern shore of the Gulf of Bothnia, an arm of the Baltic Sea. Find it on the map on page 215. Much of Finland is rocky upland and clear lakes. Along the coasts are wide lowlands. Dairying and lumbering are important industries. Most of the soils are poor and the winters are cold and long. Finland depends on the products of its forests. Lumber and wood pulp are exported from the great forests of pine, spruce, and fir.

In spite of poor soils and short summers about half of the people of Finland are farmers. Their chief crops are hay, potatoes, and grains.

The capital of Finland is Helsinki. It is also the most important port. Here is located a great university, and the city is known as a winter-sports resort. Finland in the past belonged at one time to Sweden and later to Russia, but in 1920 it became a republic.

Denmark is a low, flat land. It is very different from the other two Scandinavian countries, Norway and Sweden. Having few forests and no highly valuable minerals, the Danes have made the most of what they do have. The warm westerly winds bring rain to Denmark, and the grass grows lush in the meadows. So Denmark became a dairy land, famous for milk and cream, butter and eggs. Besides milk cows, the Danish farmers raise beef cattle, pigs, and chickens. Danish butter, bacon, and eggs are important exports.

The farmers of Denmark have become skilled at working together. They have formed societies, known as co-operatives, to market their produce and buy what they need, such as fertilizers. One society handles cream and butter, another cheese, another eggs, and another bacon. The society collects the produce from the farmers, then grades, packs, and sells it, and pays the farmer his share of the profits. Nearly every farmer belongs to one or more of these societies. Everything packed and sold by the co-operative must be of tested quality: the eggs fresh, the butter pure, and the bacon from fat and healthy pigs. A farmer who sends in poor produce is fined or dropped from the society. Then he can no longer get a good price for his products.

Most of the farms are small, but every foot of land is made to produce. No space is wasted on fences, but there are good roads everywhere. Special farm advisers help the farmer by teaching him the best way to care for his land, buildings, animals, and crops.

A co-operative store in Copenhagen, Denmark



Copenhagen, the capital, is on a large island and is the only large city in Denmark. Its name means "merchants' harbor," and it has been a center of trade for centuries. The island of Greenland belongs to Denmark. Iceland was once a Danish possession, but in 1944 the people of Iceland voted to separate from Denmark and become a republic.

The Danish people have many old folk tales. Did you ever read the fairy tales of Hans Christian Andersen? Do not forget that he was a Dane.

Facing the Atlantic

The Low Countries. Facing toward the Atlantic, with its wide sea lanes of trade, are three industrial and commercial nations, Holland, Belgium, and France. Find these countries on the map on page 222. Holland and Belgium were long known as the Netherlands, or the Low Countries, because their seacoasts are flat and low. After the two countries separated, the Netherlands became the official name for Holland, the more northern of the two. Like the Scandinavian countries, Belgium and the Netherlands are democratically governed kingdoms.

The Netherlands is the home of the Dutch. It is about the size of Massachusetts and Connecticut combined. To the south is Belgium, to the east lies Germany, and the north and west are washed by the North Sea. The name *Holland*, or "hollow land," really belongs only to the western part of the country, which is actually below sea level. This land was claimed from the ocean by the Dutch, who built dikes to hold back the tides. Along much of the North Sea, sand dunes border the coast. Behind the dunes the land, stretching inland, is lower than sea level. Most of these dunes have been made into dikes. Dikes are broad banks of firmly packed sand, gravel, and clay. Where the waves beat with most force, blocks of granite, a very hard kind of rock, were brought from Sweden and added. Dikes were also built to hold back the shallow rivers which overflowed with the rising of the tide. The people then drained the water from the low-lying fields. Because silt has been brought down by the rivers, this area has become a rich and fertile farming country, with soil which is much better than the soil of the higher regions of the east. In the "hollow land" live most of the Dutch people, and it is here that the agriculture, industry, and trade of the country are centered. Here mile after mile of flat farming land stretches without a single hill. The only slopes are those made by the dikes and those that lead up to bridges that cross the many canals.

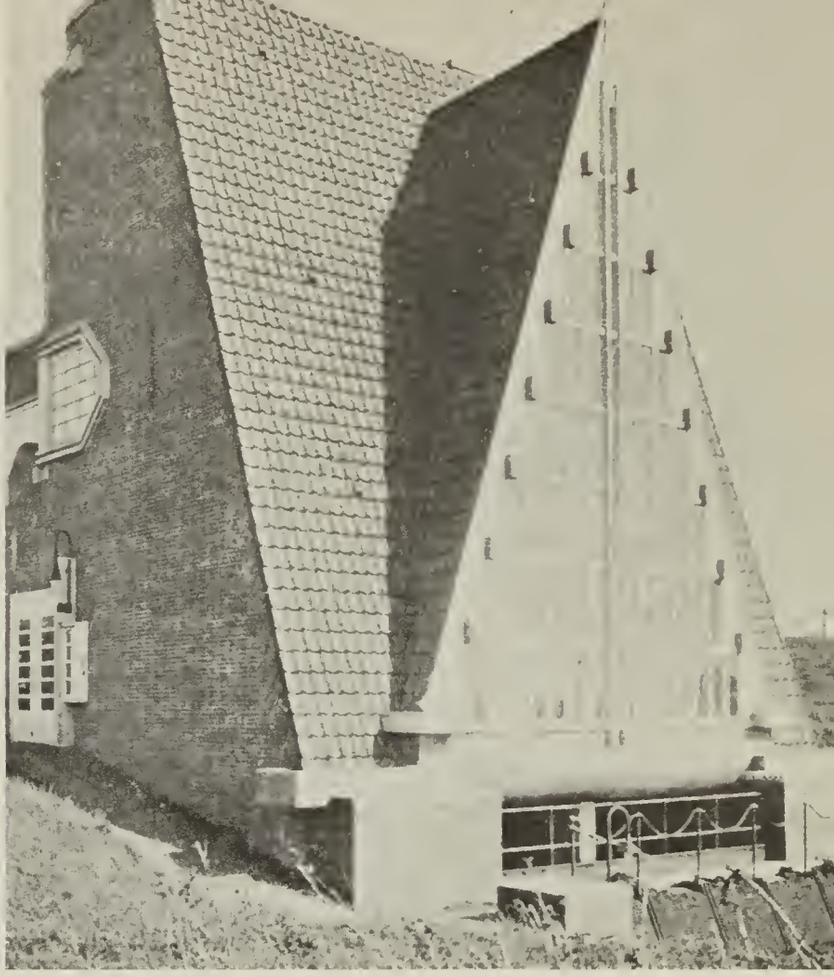
Find the Zuider Zee on your map on page 222. Centuries ago the Zuider Zee was an inland lake. Then in the thirteenth century the ocean flooded this part of the low lands and the lake became a large gulf of the North Sea. This shallow arm of the North Sea was once much larger than it is now. The entrance to the sea has been closed by a great dike, once more making this body of water an inland lake. Much of the land along the shores has been drained and turned into farm lands, and plans are made to drain still more land.

The Netherlands is a land of rivers, canals, and waterways. The Rhine River, flowing out of Germany, the Meuse River, and the wide bay at the mouth of the Scheldt River are natural waterways. In addition, the country is crisscrossed by canals, which drain the fields and also provide water highways for travel and transportation. The water must



The Netherlands, Belgium, and France





Some windmills are still used to pump water from the fields, but many are being replaced by electric pumping stations

be pumped from ditches into the canals, to keep it at just the right level so that it won't flood the land. These pumps were once worked by windmills, but now electric, steam, or gasoline pumps usually take the place of windmills. The main canals are built above sea level and carry the water into the North Sea.

There are fishing villages at certain places along the coast. From these villages fleets of ships sail out to the rich fisheries of the North Sea, and return with herring and other fish which have been caught in great nets. In normal times part of this catch is shipped to Germany.

The chief crops of Holland are oats, rye, flax, potatoes, and sugar beets. The new fields at the edge of the sea, which the Dutch farmers are constantly building by erecting small dikes to keep out the tides, are called polders. Fine grass grows in the polders, and this means excellent grazing for milk cows. Dairying is important in the Netherlands, as in Denmark. The Holstein cattle, some of the best milk-producers in the world, come from Holland. Dutch butter and cheese are famous, and much condensed milk is exported. Edam is one of the centers of the cheese industry. Here a cheese market is usually held once a week, and cheeses are sent in from farms all over the country to be displayed for sale.

On the inner side of the sand dunes near the coast, flower bulbs are raised. Here in the spring colorful tulips, narcissuses, and daffodils bloom in the sunshine. Haarlem is in the heart of the flower-growing district. Every year, late in April, this district has a "tulip Sunday" when people from all over the Netherlands come to see thousands of acres of land glowing with bright blossoms. These lands



Daffodil blooms must be cut before the bulbs are dug for market

near the dunes are also used to raise vegetables and fruits.

The higher plains of the east are used to grow potatoes, wheat, barley, oats, and sugar beets, and to pasture cattle.

Commerce is more important to the Netherlands than agriculture. The Netherlands is located in the center of a great industrial district, at the crossroads of trade between Great Britain, France, Belgium, and Germany. River traffic comes down the Rhine from Switzerland and Germany, and ocean vessels dock at the ports of Amsterdam and Rotterdam.

Rotterdam, on the Meuse River, is a seaport not only for the Netherlands but for the great industrial Ruhr district of Germany. Find this port on your map. One of the branches of the Rhine flows into the Meuse just a little above the city. Thus the city is the ocean outlet for the industrial and farm products of the Rhine Valley. It is about fifteen miles from the North Sea. Great ocean ships come to Rotterdam by a deep canal. Here much of the grain, ores, and other imports are loaded onto barges which go upstream to the cities of the Rhine Valley. Rotterdam is also a port for overseas trade with the East

Indies. The city has industries of its own, manufacturing cigars, rope, leather, and paints, and refining sugar. It is also a shipbuilding center.

The Dutch have been merchants for centuries. They are a seafaring nation, too, as we know, and there has been a busy trade between the Netherlands and the East Indies. Raw products of the East Indies have been prepared in the Netherlands for market. Sugar, petroleum, and vegetable oils are refined, coffee is roasted, and cocoa and chocolate are prepared and packed in factories such as Joel and Hendrik visited.

Many of these raw materials enter the port of Amsterdam. Find this city on your map. It is on the Zuider Zee. A deep canal connects the city with the North Sea. Amsterdam was built on land claimed from the sea. For this reason the city is drained by canals which divide it into many islands. The main canals are bordered by tall trees and have landing places for unloading goods and passengers. In some parts of the city lovely old churches and houses line the canals. Amsterdam has long been famous for the skill of its diamond cutters. Oil and sugar from the East Indies are refined here, and there are glass and chemical factories, iron works, and shipyards.

Some Dutch manufacturing is of a kind that requires special skill, for example, the making of the beautiful Delft pottery. The Netherlands has almost no heavy industry, since it has no iron and little coal, but shipbuilding for Dutch commerce is an important business. Though there is a small iron-and-steel industry,

Canals in Amsterdam, Holland



most of the heavy machinery is imported from nearby nations. Other imports are iron, steel, grain for cattle and poultry, and cotton.

The factories that process raw materials and the ships and harbors of the Netherlands are links in a busy network of commerce covering many countries.

The Hague is the center of the Netherlands government. In this city the States-General, or Parliament, meets. But Amsterdam is the business center and the largest and most important city.

During the religious wars and persecutions of the seventeenth century, many people found safety and religious toleration in Holland. Among these people were the Pilgrims who went from England to Holland before they sailed for America where they settled at Plymouth.

Belgium, the next-door neighbor of the Netherlands, is a beehive of industry. It is one of the most thickly populated countries in the world. On the south and southwest lies France, on the north and northeast are the North Sea and the Netherlands, and to the east lies Germany and the little country of Luxembourg. Across the North Sea are the

Coal and iron mines of Europe





Market place in the center of Brussels, capital of Belgium

British Isles. Also the northern section of the country occupies part of the great plain of Europe and is therefore a natural highway between east and west. Thus Belgium is a crossroads of trade and travel. This excellent location plus an abundant supply of coal has made it possible for the Belgians to make their country a busy center of industry. It is first of all an industrial country, importing raw materials and exporting manufactured products. Important exports are iron and steel goods, machinery, steel rails, locomotives, chemicals, and cloth.

Since the days of the medieval guilds the people of this part of Europe have been skilled weavers. Some of these craftsmen taught the weavers of England their art in the days of the hand loom. The Industrial Revolution turned the tables, and the weavers of Belgium learned machine weaving from England. Excellent cotton, woolen, and linen textiles come from Belgian mills. Largest of the textile centers is Ghent. Brussels, the capital city, has given its name to a fine kind of carpet. Lacemaking is another important industry, which centers at Bruges. Belgium's beautiful handmade lace is admired and prized wherever it goes.

Although Belgium is not much larger than the state of Maryland, it supports more than 8,000,000 people. Belgian farms, like those of the Netherlands, are not large, but the farmers make every acre produce its utmost. They raise a large part of the food needed by their countrymen, but much food must be imported. Some very fine flax is grown for home use and for shipment to Ireland. Do you remember reading about the famous linens made in Belfast? Belgium provides some of the flax for these fine linens. Belgium, in turn, imports coarser flax from Russia for some of its own mills. Flocks of sheep provide part of the wool used by the country's woolen mills, but cotton and some wool must be imported.

Belgium is made up of two very different parts. The northern part is flat and low. Here are the best farm lands. The farmers speak Flemish, a language something like Dutch. Wheat, barley, oats, potatoes, and rye are grown in this section. There are also many orchards and vineyards, some of the fruit being shipped to neighboring countries. In some places the coastal land is below sea level. As in Holland, much of this land has been drained, and dikes have been built to keep the sea from flooding the land. These polders form one of the most fertile farming regions of the country. Here and in other sections of the plain Brussels sprouts and other vegetables are grown. Some of these vegetables are shipped to the markets of neighboring countries.

The constant building up of the land along the coast has made inland cities of some that were seaports in the Middle Ages. One such city is Bruges, which is now about six miles from the coast. Canals connect the city with the sea.

In the southeast the land becomes hilly and rises to a plateau. The people who live here speak French. On the northern edge of this region are rich coal fields. These fields extend from the French border near Mons to just beyond Liége in the east. Find these fields on the coal-and-iron map of Europe on page 226. Other mineral deposits are nearby. As a result this is a great manufacturing district. Furnaces and mills turn out iron and steel. Heavy machinery is produced, and cotton and woolen mills, chemical plants, and glassworks have grown up. Much of the natural beauty of this region has been destroyed by the mining and industrial growth, and tall smokestacks dot the land. Liége is a busy city and the center of the steel industry. Farther west, the town of Charleroi is the home of Belgium's glass industry. Coal and sand, both necessary to glassmaking, are plentiful here. Plate glass of fine quality is made and exported.

Iron deposits underlie the southern tip of Belgium. However, Belgium does not mine enough iron to feed its industries, so most of the iron used is imported from France and Luxembourg. Although Belgium has rich coal deposits, the country does not have enough of the kind of coal used in making iron and steel. For this reason a great deal of coal must be brought in from neighboring countries.

Many of the people of the southern plateau work in the mines and factories of Belgium's great industrial district. However, southeastern Belgium is also a land of farms. Many streams have cut valleys in the plateau. Wheat and sugar beets are the important crops, and cattle, sheep, and horses are raised.

Find Brussels, the capital, on your map, and notice its central location. It is an important railroad center and is connected with the North Sea by canals. Brussels is a city of fine boulevards and public buildings. The university, art galleries, opera house, and school of music make it a center of learning, art, and music. But here also, under a garment



A steel mill in Belgium

of beauty, move the muscles of industry. Besides lacemaking Brussels produces cotton and woolen goods, furniture, paper, metal products, and sugar. This city has been a prosperous trade and industrial center for hundreds of years. The visitor can see the great market square where merchants of the Middle Ages met to trade. The medieval buildings that still stand are beautifully carved. Magnificent guild halls overlook the square where women sell fruit, vegetables, and flowers. Turn back to page 227 and study the picture of the market place in Brussels.

Like Brussels, Antwerp is a very old city. It is the largest port and also has many industries. During the latter part of the Middle Ages it was the end of an important overland route from the East. Silks, spices, and furs from the East were sold in its markets, and merchants came to buy fine Belgian cloth. The city is located on the Scheldt River about fifty miles from the sea. The land on both sides of the mouth of the Scheldt River belongs to the Netherlands; so ships bound for Antwerp must first pass through Dutch territory. Into this port come many of the raw materials that help to feed Belgium's industries. Out of the port go the manufactured products that make up the greater part of Belgium's exports. A canal connects Antwerp with Liége and the industrial heart of Belgium. This port is also used by the cities of western Germany and eastern France.

Again we see how closely bound together by commerce are these countries of western Europe. Ocean ports and inland waterways must be open to traffic, and friendly co-operation is very important.



The harbor of Antwerp in Belgium

Belgium has often been a *buffer state* between France and Germany. A small country with little military power located between two stronger countries is sometimes called a buffer state. When France was a strong military power under Napoleon, it held Belgium while fighting against Germany. And in the twentieth century in both world wars, although Belgium was at peace, it was occupied by German troops. The Belgians, who have recovered and rebuilt their homeland many times before, are now forced to do so once more.

France was one of the first countries to become a strong nation. In reading the story of France we found that its boundaries helped to make this possible. On the map on page 222 look again at these natural frontiers. To the north is the English Channel, and to the west the Bay of Biscay, a part of the Atlantic Ocean. To the south the Pyrenees Mountains fence France away from Spain, and the southern coast of France borders the Mediterranean. The Alps guard the Italian border on the east, and further north the Jura Mountains rise between France and Switzerland. These mountains continue northward, but gradually the land becomes more level, leaving in the northeast the only opening in France's natural wall of defense. Twice in our own century German forces have invaded France through this lowland region. Now France has been freed from German invaders, and the French must rebuild their cities and restore their ruined fields to cultivation.

When you look at the map you can understand why France's location is a great advantage to its people. Not only does the country border the Atlantic, the great sea route between Europe and the Americas, but it also has a fine port on the Mediterranean from which ships may sail through the Suez Canal to the Far East. In Europe France has as neighbors busy and prosperous countries, and across the English Channel lie the British Isles. Thus France is well located for carrying on a world trade.

Like Great Britain, France built up a great overseas empire, but now only a small part of this empire remains. The most important of France's overseas possessions are in Africa. The other large colony is Indo-China in Southeast Asia.

France is a republic governed by an assembly and officials elected by the people. The seat of the government is in Paris.

Warm winds and plentiful summer rains make France an excellent farming country. The hard-working French farmers grow almost enough food to meet the needs of the people of France. They also produce many products which are used by France's industries. Each year some grain and meat is imported, but the country is much less dependent on imported food than is Great Britain.

The map on page 212 will show you that the great plain of Europe extends across northern and western France. French soils are fertile, and more than half of the country is cultivated farm land. Most of the farms are small, and not much heavy farming machinery is used.

Young Frenchmen gather the grapes



But French farmers love their land, and their families work with them raising crops and dairying. Their houses are usually built in villages, where they can share school and church and have good times with their neighbors.

From a central plateau, the slope of the land divides France into three great valleys, or basins. The north-central section is called the Paris basin. Through this wide basin flow the Seine and the Loire rivers. This basin is the breadbasket, the dairy barn, and the butcher shop of France. It produces almost all the food needed by the great city of Paris. Thousands of acres of wheat supply flour for the fine white bread which the French like. In addition, there are fields of potatoes and sugar beets, orchards, and vegetable gardens. Sugar beets grown in this basin furnish most of the sugar used in France.

Broad highways, railroad lines, and canals connect this region with the Rhone River valley to the southeast. This valley opens out on the Mediterranean coast, and, therefore, the climate is warmer than in the Paris basin. Much of the rain comes in winter and the summers are quite dry. This is a land of grapes and olives and figs. Some wheat also is grown. Acres of flowers are raised for the manufacture of perfume. Mulberry trees furnish leaves to feed silkworms. Silk was once produced in quantity, but most of the silk now used by silk mills is imported. Grapes are raised in abundance, and France is among the leading wine-producers of the world. In the late summer the villages of this region are almost deserted. Entire families, men, women, and children, go out into the vineyards to gather the grapes that will make the fine wines of France.

Not far from the mouth of the Rhone is the great port of Marseilles. This port is connected with the Rhone River by canal. By looking at the map you can see why this is the greatest port of France. It is at the southern end of the rich Rhone Valley which is connected by railroad, canals, and highways with the Paris basin. Also Marseilles is the gateway to France's African possessions and to the Far East. Ships bring in oil from India, cotton oil, sugar, tobacco, silk, and many other raw materials. Many of these imports are used by the industries of Marseilles itself. Soap and candles are made, and there are sugar refineries, tile and brick factories, petroleum refineries, and flour mills. From this port go ships laden with perfume, soap, silks, candles, canned fish, and wines to be sold in countries all around the world. Marseilles is a very old port. Probably the ancient Phoenicians first settled here, and after that the Greeks set up a colony which became an important trading center under the Roman Empire.

At the southeast corner of the Rhone River region, along the Mediterranean shore from Marseilles to the Italian border, is the French Riviera, a favorite land for tourists. Behind a narrow strip of sand mountains rise above the sparkling Mediterranean. These are the Alps. They shelter the coast from the cold winds that blow from the north, so visitors can enjoy summer weather in the winter.

In the southwest of France, along the valley of the Garonne River, lies a third great farming region. Like the Mediterranean basin, it has a mild climate and many vineyards. Bordeaux, the chief port, is a world-famous wine-making center. But also like the Paris region this valley has plenty of rain and grows much wheat and many vegetables. Since the climate is mild, a great deal of corn also is grown.

South of the Garonne River, along the coast, is a great belt of pine forest. The trees were planted long ago to protect the country from strong ocean winds which swept sand over the fields and ruined them for farming.



Docks in the great harbor of Marseilles

This forest is now a valuable source of tar, turpentine, and rosin, as well as pulpwood for paper-making.

Between these three valleys rises a hilly plateau country. This land is less valuable for farming. Where the soils are rich, wheat and rye are raised. Cattle, sheep, and goats are pastured on the plateau and there are many dairies. The Roquefort cheese found in many of our markets comes from the southern part of this region. This cheese is made from a mixture of goat's and sheep's milk. The cattle of the plateau also supply hides for the French leather industry.

Another dairy section is located on the upland in northwest France, in the provinces of Brittany and Normandy. Here the westerlies bring rains, and rich pasture grass grows. These provinces are well known also for their fine vegetables and apple orchards. On the north coast are other seaport cities. Locate them on your map. From these ports potatoes, onions, and other vegetables are sent to England. Each village and city along the coast has its fleet of fishing boats that go out for herring and sardines. Some boats go as far as Newfoundland to bring back cod. An important industry in this region is the canning of fish.

France has industry as well as agriculture. There are large coal mines in two areas, one in the north near the Belgian border and the other near the city of Lyon in the Rhone Valley. The Saar region, now joined to France, also produces great quantities of coal. This region was a part of Germany before the Sec-

ond World War. All three areas are centers of industry. Find these areas on your map on page 226.

Since France does not have enough coal for its great industries, coal must be imported. Before the war France bought coal from Great Britain and Germany, and Germany bought French iron ore. Now that the Saar region is separated from Germany and joined to France, a large part of France's coal comes from the Saar region. In recent years some factories in southern France have been using hydroelectric power from the streams of the Alps, the Pyrenees Mountains, or the central plateau.

Iron is found in abundance in the province of Lorraine in the east. This is the iron-and-steel manufacturing center of France, and the factories of this district produce a large part of France's heavy machinery. Iron from Lorraine is shipped to the steel foundries and factories of the north and of Lyon. Lyon is also the center of the silk industry. Find the city of Lyon on the Rhone River on your map. Raw silk is imported from Italy, Japan, and China, since little is now produced in France. Today rayon also is manufactured in large quantities. Woolens are woven in Alsace-Lorraine and in the cities of the northeast. Cotton textiles are made in the northern cities.

Most of France's exports are manufactured products. Imports are such raw materials as cotton, silk, coal, and oils which are used in France's industries, and some food products such as grains and meats. The French manufacture many things which show high quality

An iron-and-steel plant in Lorraine





Cathedral of Notre Dame from the River Seine

and artistic skill. Among these are delicate laces, fine fabrics, and costly perfumes.

Paris, the capital of France, is a world city. The picture on this page shows the famous cathedral of Notre Dame. The Cathedral is on an island in the Seine. This island is the heart of Paris. Here, hundreds of years ago, Paris began as a small trading village. Its excellent location in the center of the Paris basin and on important trade routes made the city prosper and grow so that it spread from the island to both banks of the Seine. Today Paris and its suburbs have a population of about six million, while the city itself has about three million.

Travelers from every country find in Paris a welcome and much to delight and interest them. The city has been laid out to follow



Famous Eiffel Tower in Paris

a careful plan with wide, tree-lined avenues and many parks and squares. The museums, picture galleries, great universities, beautiful cathedrals, and stately avenues of Paris are known all over the world.

Paris is also a great industrial and commercial center. Over a million people in the city and its suburbs are employed in manufacturing. Factories make machinery, tools, glass, chemicals, soaps, and automobiles. Smaller workshops produce leather goods, furniture, and the other fine products for which France is famous. Especially important is the designing and making of clothes, for Paris is one of the fashion centers of the world. Many of France's books are also published in Paris.

The city is about 110 miles from the sea. Find the port of Le Havre on your map. Through Le Havre pass the products of Paris and northern France. Paris is a great river port. Along the wharves that line the Seine barges anchor to unload the raw materials and products used by the city and carry away manufactured products. Some of these barges come up the river from the port of Le Havre, others come by canals from all parts of France. The city is also a railroad center, and highways from all over the country meet here.

As the capital of one of the first strong democratic countries, Paris has done much for the growth of freedom. Perhaps some day you may be able to visit this beautiful, busy city on the Seine River.

Docks at Le Havre



Three peninsulas reach southward from Europe into the Mediterranean Sea. The westernmost peninsula is occupied by Spain and Portugal, the central peninsula by Italy, and the peninsula farthest east by Greece. Actually Greece occupies the southern tip of a larger peninsula known as the Balkan Peninsula (see page 213). Most of the lowland valleys and seacoasts of these peninsulas have mild winters with some rainfall and hot dry summers. Although all three peninsulas are hilly and mountainous, the hills and mountains are not forest-covered, except in a few spots. Most of the woodlands and groves of the Mediterranean lands had to be planted. Many trees are cultivated for their products.

The western peninsula is large and roughly square. It lies between the Atlantic Ocean and the Mediterranean Sea. Portugal, as you will remember, extends along part of its Atlantic coast, and Spain occupies the rest of the peninsula. Study these two countries on the map below. Both Spain and Portugal are largely agricultural countries, and produce

Spain and Portugal and their position in Europe



most of their own food. Work is still often done by old methods, with oxen drawing the plows and donkeys serving as beasts of burden. Most of the peninsula is high plateau land, crowned by rugged mountains. The Pyrenees along the north cut off the peninsula from the rest of Europe, but railroads link Spain with France. Westerlies bring rains to the Portuguese highlands and the Cantabrian Mountains of northwest Spain.

Northern Portugal is a garden and meadow country with a mild, moist, climate, but toward the south the climate is warmer and drier. Oporto, the seaport of northern Portugal, exports wine. The wines of Portugal are famous, and the wine called Port is named after the city of Oporto. Farther south is the city of Lisbon, also an important Atlantic seaport and the capital of Portugal.

Cork is among the most important crops in the peninsula. Portugal produces half of the world's cork, and Spain at least one fourth. Cork trees belong to the oak family. They grow wild, but now they are also planted in large groves. Every eight or ten years the outer layer of bark is carefully stripped off. It is very light and about two inches thick. It is soaked, pressed flat, and then dried. Cork is used for many things, such as shoe soles, floats for fishing nets and making linoleum. Cork-making is a very important industry in Portugal.



Workmen strip bark from a cork tree

Agriculture in Spain. The best farm lands of Spain are along the Mediterranean coast and in the river valleys. The wide plateau north of Madrid, the capital, is an important wheat region, and large sections of it are grazing land. Sugar cane is raised in southern Spain, and Spanish onions and tomatoes are shipped to other parts of Europe. The important crops are wheat, barley, and fruits: olives, oranges, lemons, figs, and grapes. Valencia, on the east coast, is the greatest orange center and gave its name to a popular variety of orange now grown in the United States. Spanish oranges are sold to markets all over Europe. Large quantities of grapes also are raised. Malaga, on the southern coast, is a famous grape center. The farmers have made level strips called terraces one above the other along the hillsides, and have built stone walls to keep the soil from washing. Along these terraces grow the grapevines, their branches supported by pillars and trellises. Malaga grapes have tender skins and make excellent raisins. Raisins and fresh grapes are exported in quantity. Spain as well as Portugal is a wine-making country.

Fig and olive trees like a mild, dry climate, and send their roots deep for moisture. Both live to be very old, and continue to produce good fruit. The Guadalquivir River valley is



Spanish farmers separate wheat from chaff

a forest of olive trees. Seville, in the heart of the olive country, produces a great deal of olive oil, and prepares olives, both green and ripe, for export. Olives are an important food for the Spanish as for all Mediterranean people. The rich oil pressed from the olives takes the place of butter, in this land of few cattle. Almonds, hazelnuts, and chestnuts are raised, both for food for the Spanish people and for export to other countries.

Iron, coal, and zinc are found in the mountains of Spain. Some ore is mined and shipped to other countries, but Spain has few industries, even though some iron and coal are at hand. Barcelona is Spain's most important manufacturing city. Here are located textile mills, and leather, paper, and metal factories.

The peninsula of Greece is an irregular and mountainous land. The soil is rocky and not well suited to large-scale agriculture. Today, as in ancient times, olive trees grow widely, and olive oil is an important product. Northeastern Greece has the most fertile soil, and here tobacco is grown for export. This is also a wheat-growing region. Here too are vineyards on the hills, and orange, oak, and chestnut groves. Pigs are fattened on acorns and chestnuts, and goats and sheep graze in high pastures.

There are many fleets of small fishing boats in Mediterranean waters. But the Greek fishermen do not catch enough fish to supply all their country's needs, and Greece imports some fish from the northern countries. In the clear waters of the Aegean Sea grow sponges, which groups of skillful fishermen and divers gather, clean, and market.

Along the south shore of the Gulf of Corinth, and on many of the islands along the eastern coast of Greece, currants are raised, the currants we use in cookies or mince pies. These are not the red berries used to make jelly, but smaller black ones which grow in clusters like little grapes. They are gathered in July or August and spread out in trays to dry in the hot summer sun. They become wrinkled and sweet, and are then packed and shipped all over the world. They take their name from Corinth, the old city of the isthmus: "raisins of Corinth" gradually changing to "currants."

Corinth, you remember, was one of the important city-states of ancient Greece, and was even then a busy trading center. Goods were unloaded in the harbor in the old days and carried across the isthmus by muleback to ships waiting on the other side. Sometimes small fishing boats or cargo vessels were even dragged across the isthmus by means of rollers, and launched on the other side. But now a canal has been cut through the isthmus, and today ships can sail the four miles from the eastern to the western coast, instead of having to go the whole two hundred miles around.



Ruined walls in Corinth tell of the long ago

Greece is a land with a great past, the story of which you know. A modern visitor to Greece is reminded of its past glory by the ruins of beautiful temples, shrines, and theaters. The world will always treasure the art, drama, and philosophy which were among the great gifts of ancient Greece to modern culture. Athens, the largest city, is the capital.

Italy is the central peninsula. We already know that long ago the stern Romans of the ancient republic laid the foundations for the power and greatness of the Roman Empire. After the disorder of the Middle Ages, the new birth of art and literature arose first in Italy. The rich Italian trading cities became busy centers for splendid painting, sculpture, and architecture. Suppose we look now at life in modern Italy.

We know the mountains of Italy, for they have had a place in history. In the north tower the Alps, separating Italy from France, Switzerland, and Austria. Running down the peninsula itself are the Apennines.

In spite of the ruggedness of the land, farming is the most important single occupation of the people. Italy's finest farming land is in the valley of the Po River. Locate this river which flows across northern Italy on the map on page 212. Many of the farms here are large enough for the use of modern farm machinery. Much of the deep, fertile soil of the region is silt which has been brought down by the streams. Moderate rains fall throughout the year, and, in addition, the streams furnish water for irrigation. Rice is raised by irrigation, for it needs flat, wet land. Wheat and corn, potatoes and other vegetables are raised. A large amount of hay is grown, and a smaller quantity of hemp. Mulberry trees grow well in this section, and many of the farmers raise silk-



An Italian farmer sprays his grapevines

worms. Plentiful grass feeds dairy herds, and cheese is produced. Parmesan cheese, which is grated fine and used with spaghetti, comes from the neighborhood of the city of Parma.

Smaller fertile farming regions are found in the valley of the Arno River, and on the sunny coastal plains around the cities of Rome and Naples. Locate these places on your map. In the rest of the country, where the soil is poor, farms are small and the farming people do not make a very good living. Vineyards provide abundant grapes, and a great deal of wine is made, both for use at home and for export. Many farmers plant grain or vegetables between the rows of vines, and in this way reap two harvests from the same patch of land. Chestnut and oak trees grow throughout the peninsula. Chestnuts are a favorite food, boiled, baked, roasted, or made into delicious puddings. Acorns and acorn meal are also used. Other trees which are cultivated are the almond, walnut, fig, and olive. Olives and olive oil are valued as food at home, and are also packed for export. Italian olive oil is shipped all over the world.

The broad northern valley of the Po is the leading industrial center of Italy. The coal, bauxite, and iron for Italian industry is imported. But Italy produces aluminum and some iron and steel, and is fast developing hydroelectric power from the streams and waterfalls in the foothills of the Alps. There are plenty of workers for the mills and factories, for northern Italy has a large population. Silk cloth is made from the raw silk produced in Italy, and cotton is imported to make cotton cloth. Recently a good deal of rayon has been produced. Italian factories make automobiles and some machinery. Another industry is the manufacture of macaroni, spaghetti, and other similar products. Hard wheat, excellent for macaroni, is grown in the Po Valley. Flour, made from this wheat, is mixed to a stiff paste, forced through a cylinder full of small holes, and comes out in long cords or tubes. These are hung over racks to dry, and are then broken into the proper lengths and packed for shipping.

Besides the manufacture of textiles and macaroni there are a number of smaller industries in Italy. Hats are woven of fine, tough wheat straw in the coastal city of Leghorn. Fine kid gloves and shoes are made at Naples, and beautiful glassware at Venice. Since the opening of the Suez Canal in 1869, the Mediterranean has become an even more important highway than it was before, and Naples and Genoa are the busiest ports in Italy.

Rome is the capital of the modern Italian republic, just as it was the capital of the early Roman Republic and the Roman Empire. The Vatican, the official home of the Pope, is

in Vatican City, an independent state within the city of Rome. It is the world capital of the Catholic Church. Rome is rich in monuments of her earlier imperial glory and her rich Renaissance flowering, and remains, for Italians and foreign visitors alike, the Eternal City.

Central Europe: Countries Large and Small

From the Rhine River and the Alps on the west to the plains of Hungary on the east, from the Baltic Sea on the north to the Balkan Peninsula in the south, is the large area which we call central Europe. Central Europe does not have any exact boundaries. We shall study six countries: Switzerland, Germany, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Austria, and Hungary. This part of Europe has many old and varied cultures. Its history, like that of western Europe, has been full of war and conflict. Some of its countries have only recently become independent nations. Let us look at this part of Europe.

Switzerland lies high in the mountains. The Alps rise in southern Switzerland, rugged and snow-crowned, the higher peaks towering from 12,000 to 16,000 feet above sea level. In northwest Switzerland are the Jura Mountains. Find these mountains on the map on page 246. Between these two ranges lies the

St. Peter's Cathedral, at Rome, the largest church in the world, is visited by thousands of travelers





Life is peaceful in the mountain villages of Switzerland

rugged upland which covers about one third of Switzerland. This upland is the home of more than half the Swiss people. Here are famous lakes and beautiful scenery, and here are the large cities of Switzerland.

For a mountain country, Switzerland is surprisingly productive. There are no large farms because there is little level land. Alpine farmers build their wooden houses in small villages in the deep, sheltered valleys. Here they cultivate vegetable gardens, wheat fields, and fruit orchards. On the lower slopes above the village are rye and potato fields, and forests of beech and maple. Above these rise forests of pine and fir trees, and still higher are meadows, covered in summer with grass and flowers. Above the tree line barren peaks, with blue-green glaciers in their hollows, tower against the sky.

In springtime the village herds are brought together and taken up to the mountain meadows to pasture. Here they remain all summer feeding on the green grass, while the herdsmen who care for them are busy making cheese and butter. At times a load of cheese and butter is brought down to the village, and food supplies are taken back. Meanwhile, those who remain in the valley tend the gardens and cut the hay for winter feeding. With the first snowfall in the mountains the herds are brought down to their clean, warm barns in the valley. Besides butter and cheese, other milk products are condensed milk, baby foods, and milk chocolate, all of which are exported in large quantities.

Switzerland also has a machine industry. Hydroelectric power from mountain streams is plentiful and cheap, and electric machinery is made for the factories of Switzerland and also for export. The center of this industry is the city of Zurich. Switzerland has no great supply of raw materials, and has to import its coal, iron, and cotton. Therefore, Swiss manufacturers have chosen as their special line articles which require skilled workmanship.

The factories of Zurich produce fine silk and cotton cloth and dainty machine-made embroideries. Basel is the center of the silk-ribbon industry. The whole district about Geneva is a thriving clock-and-watch factory. Springs are made in one town, cases in another, and still other parts in other towns. Swiss watches have long been considered among the finest in the world.

Railroads enter Switzerland through long tunnels through the mountains, such as the Simplon and Saint Gotthard tunnels, which connect Switzerland with Italy. In peacetime the railroads carry thousands of visitors into Switzerland every year. Special railroads have been built to take travelers to places where they can best enjoy Switzerland's glorious scenery, snowy peaks, and blue lakes. The Swiss run hundreds of hotels and inns, and outdoor fun on skis, skates, and toboggans provides good sport and excitement for thousands of vacationers. A large proportion of the Swiss people make their living from the tourist trade, since Switzerland is itself in many ways an enormous resort.

The Swiss won their independence during the Middle Ages. Switzerland is among the oldest independent nations in Europe. The Swiss government is a federation of different cantons, somewhat like our own union of forty-eight states. The Swiss elect representatives to govern them. Their legislature, much like our Congress, meets at Berne, the capital city. The Swiss speak different languages—German, French, and Italian—in different parts of Switzerland, but this has not weakened the loyalty they all feel for their country.

During recent European history Switzerland has remained *neutral*, that is, has not taken sides in war, but has remained at peace. This neutrality has allowed the Swiss to escape the destruction and suffering which wars always bring.



Skilled craftsmen make Swiss watches

The largest nation in central Europe is Germany. Study it on your map on page 246. You will see that the great lowland plain of Europe extends across all of northern Germany, covering about half of the country. In southern Germany the land rises into an upland region of wooded hills and broad valleys. From what the map shows you, see if you can think of any reasons why Germany was slower to form a united nation than France or England. In 1871, less than one hundred years ago, Germany became a nation through the union of many small German states. The leaders of Germany then went to work steadily and swiftly to build up the new German nation.

In the lowland plain of the north the soil is poor and sandy. From the Dutch the German farmers learned how to enrich their soil



The countries of central Europe

with nitrogen, from nitrates, and potassium, or potash. German chemists soon learned to take nitrogen from the air, and became expert at making valuable nitrate fertilizer. Great beds of potash were discovered in central Germany.

Enriched by these chemicals, German acres began to produce larger crops. On the sandy plains of the north, potatoes, rye, and sugar beets are the common crops, and cattle, sheep, pigs, and poultry are raised. On the hilly ground farther south are large fields of wheat and sugar beets. Vegetables and fruits are grown in abundance, especially wine grapes, for much wine is produced. Here also are found pasture lands providing food for livestock. Germany exports wines and, to European countries, a great deal of beet sugar. The rest of its agricultural products, such as potatoes, rye, oats, wheat, and dairy products, are needed for its own people.

In southern Germany industry makes room for beauty. Germany is chiefly an industrial country. Even in south Germany, famous for its scenery, there are busy industrial centers. The southern highlands are a source of much wealth. Through this hilly upland region rivers have cut deep valleys. Mountain streams are used to generate electricity. Wide regions are covered by forests, and as fast as the timber is cut it is carefully replanted. In the forest areas many of the men are skilled wood carvers, and wooden articles are made for export. Timber, of course, is valuable as building material, and is used in the manufacture of furniture and smaller articles. In these hilly regions are quarries from which come marble, slate, and building stones, and there are mines producing iron, tin, lead, and salt. The large cities of southern Germany hum with factories turning out chemicals, dyes, and textiles; clocks, watches, and jewelry; machinery and other metal goods; scientific instruments; and a large variety of toys. These things form an important part of Germany's exports.



The city of Munich in southern Germany

These thriving industrial cities have much of loveliness and historical interest to offer their visitors. In the art galleries of Munich are some of the greatest treasures of ancient, medieval, and modern art. In contrast, here might be found before the war one of the largest industrial and scientific exhibits in the world. Frankfurt has been famous for four hundred years as one of the greatest market places of Europe, holding two fairs every year. Stuttgart is an important publishing and cotton-textile center, but it has its old castle and a still older church. Nürnberg, a toy-making city, also has many chemical plants. The city is re-

nowned for its castles, churches, and shrines, and for its quaint old-time look. Many parts of this city have changed surprisingly little since the days of the Middle Ages and the Renaissance. Locate these cities on your map.

Among the hills are many lakes and numerous mineral springs. Pleasure resorts attract tourists seeking beauty and health in the out-of-doors. In the southwest rivers rise in some of these small lakes and flow eastward to form the Danube, a great highway of eastern Europe. From the high mountains of Switzerland flows the Rhine, to form the boundary of Germany at its southwest corner and to become an amazing thoroughfare to the north. Follow the course of this river on your map from Switzerland through the Netherlands to the North Sea. If you should visit this highland section of Germany you might travel by boat down the Rhine till it enters the plain.

Traffic on the Rhine River



This is an experience seldom forgotten. On either side of the river, headlands are crowned with picturesque old towers and castles. Every curve of the river unfolds some new loveliness. As you travel down the upper Rhine to the city of Mainz you travel through a fertile lowland valley about fifteen or twenty miles wide. This is one of Germany's richest farming regions. On the valley floor grain and sugar beets are raised and cattle graze. Hops, used in making beer, are also grown, and the hillsides are covered with vineyards and fruit orchards. Below Mainz the valley becomes narrow, as the river flows through steep gorges.

Always the river highway grows busier, an unrolling film of Germany's life. Up the river every day come as many as forty or fifty boats towing lines of barges heavy with coal. Downstream move just as many, taking to market lumber, fertilizer, stone, and iron ore. Such heavy, bulky things are moved more cheaply by boat than by train. But there are trains too. On both banks of the river are railroads, along which travel steady streams of freight trains. As other rivers empty into the Rhine it becomes wider and busier with its burden of commerce. You are approaching the industrial heart of Germany.

The greatest industrial district of Germany is the Rhine-Ruhr Basin. This is the name given to the wide valley where the Ruhr River flows into the Rhine. Here are very large deposits of coal, also copper, lead, zinc, and a little iron ore. The Rhine-Ruhr Valley is a land of smelters, foundries, and factories.

Nearby, in the hills of Lorraine, are enormous quantities of iron ore. Both Germany and France claim this land of Lorraine. It lies west of the Rhine, which the French call their border line. Germany took Lorraine and another district, Alsace, from France by force during the time when Germany was struggling

to become a nation, and for fifty years this iron region belonged to Germany. After the First World War in 1919, Alsace-Lorraine, with its iron mines, was returned to France. After that time Germany imported much of its iron from France, Spain, and Sweden. Here we have a good example of one of the causes of war in Europe. Nations have sometimes taken by force of arms areas which are rich in resources, rather than obtain the raw materials by peaceful trade. Turn back to the map on page 226 and find the main deposits of coal and iron in Europe.

Most of the iron and steel goods produced in Germany come from the Rhine-Ruhr center, which is full of busy industrial cities. Machinery, locomotives, motors, airplanes, chemicals, textiles, and artificial rubber are manufactured here. Many of these goods are shipped to other countries. This was also one of the main centers for the manufacture of arms and ammunition before and during the Second World War.

West of the Rhine in northern Germany is a great textile district. The cities and towns of this district produce cotton, woolen, and rayon goods, and, before the war, silken goods were made. Much of the raw wool, cotton, and silk must be shipped in from other countries. Find the textile center of Krefeld on your map.

Other German products were made possible by the chemists of Germany. These scientists contributed a great deal to Germany's commerce and the development of German industry. The enormous potato crops, produced by the use of chemical fertilizer, provide food for farmer and city worker, and feed for cattle as well. Besides this, potatoes are used in the manufacture of alcohol and starch. Alcohol is valuable as motor fuel in a country that has little petroleum.

Factory workers in the Ruhr pass by buildings damaged by bombs





Busy harbor at Hamburg, second largest city of Germany

German chemists made the beet crop yield a greater quantity of sugar. The beet tops and the crushed beet pulp they found to be an excellent cattle food. From sticky, black coal tar these chemists learned to produce brilliant, unfading dyes, also drugs, flavors, and perfumes. They extracted vegetable oils from plants and alcohol from wood. Many modern chemical discoveries were made by these scientists.

Germany has many industrial cities and towns. Berlin, the capital of Germany before the Second World War, is in northeastern Germany. Like Paris, it is a great railroad center. It lies between the Elbe and Oder rivers and is connected with these river highways by barge canals. Berlin is a market center for the agricultural products of the surrounding regions. It is also a great industrial city, manufacturing machinery of all kinds and other iron and steel products.

South of Berlin, along and near the Elbe River, is another important industrial district. This part of Germany is known as Saxony. The coal found here is used to manufacture machinery and other iron and steel products from the iron and steel of western Germany. This is also a center for textile goods, and part of Germany's great chemical industry is found here. Great plants produce medicines and drugs, chemicals to be used in dyes, plastics, soaps, and glass. The largest cities of Saxony are Leipzig and Dresden. Find them on

your map. Leipzig was one of those towns that grew into important trading centers during the later Middle Ages. It became a prosperous city because it was the meeting place of trade routes from the East and the West. It was at Leipzig that one of the great trade fairs was held each year during the Middle Ages. Today it is a great manufacturing city and trading center, making paper and scientific instruments, and famous for its book-publishing business. Dresden, on the Elbe River, has given its name to Dresden china which is made in nearby towns. Fine clay deposits lie around the city, and this clay has been used to make a lovely china. Chemicals, textile goods, beet sugar, and machinery are also manufactured here.

Germany has fine transportation systems. Look on the map on page 246 and trace the important rivers of Germany—the Rhine, the Danube, the Weser, the Elbe, and the Oder. These are linked by canals into a network of water highways. Also there are many railroad lines and wide, smooth highways for motor traffic. The Kiel Canal connects the North Sea with the Baltic. Bremen on the Weser River and Hamburg on the Elbe have been tremendous centers of shipping. Hamburg is especially well located. Goods which come in ocean vessels to this port can go in river boats up the Elbe River all the way across Germany. These harbor cities suffered damage or destruction from bombs in the Second World War, as did Berlin and other German cities. It will be a long time before Germany can be restored to its former prosperity.

How Germany is governed today. After the Second World War Germany was placed under the control of the United States, Great Britain, France, and the Soviet Union. It was divided into four parts, each part governed by one of these four nations. The city of Berlin was also put under the control of these four nations. The three western sections have been joined to form the Federal Republic of Germany. This republic is being given more and more power to govern itself under the guidance of the three controlling nations, Great Britain, France, and the United States. The eastern part, under the Soviet Union, remains a separate section. Germany's future will remain uncertain for many years to come.

To the east, between Germany and Russia, lies Poland. Look carefully at its location on the map on page 246. Notice that its northern boundary is the Baltic Sea. Poland is part of the great lowland plain of northern Europe, with no natural border defenses. The people who live in this part of Europe are members of a large group of people known as Slavs. The country takes its name from the word *pole*, which in the Slavic language means "plain." Conquering armies have often invaded and taken part of Poland's lands. At one time the country was divided among three stronger countries, and Poland completely disappeared as a separate nation. Poland has been another example of a buffer state. At the close of the First World War Poland became independent, but it was much smaller in size than when it had been a kingdom in the past. After the Second World War the boundaries were changed again; the whole country was pushed about 200 miles farther west. In the east Poland lost land to Russia. In the west and north it gained land from Germany. The country is now under the influence of its neighbor, Russia.

The land and climate of Poland make it suitable for farming. The chief crops are potatoes, sugar beets, rye, oats, and barley. Flax, hemp, and oilseeds also are raised to be used in Poland's industries. Large forest areas provide lumber and wood pulp for use at home. Before Poland's boundaries were shifted, the country had even greater resources of forest



Polish professor buying his vegetables from a peasant woman in Warsaw's open market

land, and lumber was one of the main exports. Now most of the forests are in the south.

In the south there is a hilly region, and along the southern border rise the Carpathian Mountains. Although most of the farms of Poland are found on the plain, the best soils are in this hilly region. Here most of Poland's wheat is raised.

At one time most of the farm land was held in big estates by a small group of nobles. Now almost all of these estates have been broken up, and the farms are small and owned by the farmers. Most farmers live in small villages of low houses with thatched roofs. Many of them raise cattle, pigs, and poultry.

Poland has coal, lead, zinc, some iron, some potash, and the largest salt deposit in the world. There is some oil in the southeast, but Poland must import a large part of the oil used in the country.

With these resources, you would expect Poland to have many industries. In the northwest are mills which make sugar from beets, flour mills which grind the grains, breweries, meat-packing plants, and some other factories. But the largest industrial region is in the southwest. This district has rich coal deposits and also mines of iron and zinc. Here iron and steel goods are manufactured, chemicals are produced, and leather and paper goods are made from the products of the country. Find the city of Wroclaw (Breslau) on your map. It lies at the edge of the industrial district on the Oder River. Wroclaw is a busy river port and an industrial center. Find Szczecin (Stettin) on your map. It is at the mouth of the Oder River. Szczecin is the port for this industrial district. Barges come down the Oder River from Poland's great industrial district carrying coal and manufactured products. At Szczecin the coal and other exports are transferred to ocean ships.

The chief industry in Poland has been the manufacture of textiles, which has centered in Warsaw, the capital. Not only cotton goods, but woolen goods, linens, and rayons are manufactured. All the cotton must be imported and the other textile industries also import large quantities of raw materials.

While a large part of Poland's exports before the war were agricultural products, coal, and lumber, plans were made for building more industries. The war's destruction and the shift



A freighter unloads hay in the harbor of Gdynia

of Poland's boundaries have brought many changes. Most of the industry of Poland was destroyed or taken over by the Germans when they seized Poland at the beginning of the Second World War in 1939. But now the country is vigorously building new industries. Dams are being built to provide hydroelectric power, and the industrial district in southeastern Poland near the Vistula River is being developed. This section has some iron ore and petroleum and is able to use the water power of the nearby Carpathian Mountains. Most of Poland's oil refineries are in this section. Plants have been built to produce electric power and to manufacture metal products and chemicals.

Warsaw is not only the capital and a center of the textile industry, but it is the largest city. The factories of the city manufacture machinery and produce various food products and fine handmade goods. The location of Warsaw has made it an industrial and commercial city. The city is on one of the main trade routes between East and West across the European plain. It is in the center of a fertile farming region and lies on the Vistula, the great natural highway of Poland. Trace the Vistula on your map on page 246. In summer the people depend in large part on the country's rivers and canals for transportation. In winter the rivers and canals usually freeze over. Before the war the city was a busy river port. At the mouth of the Vistula lies the port of Danzig. Nearby is the newer and more important port of Gdynia.

Warsaw was once a beautiful capital of splendid old churches and palaces, lovely parks, and fine government buildings. People from all over Poland came to study in its university and to use its libraries, museums, and



Farm lands in eastern Czechoslovakia

theaters. Warsaw is also the center of the country's railroad system, and air lines link the city with other European cities. The Second World War left the city in ruins, and the Poles are now at work rebuilding their capital.

Like other neighbors of the Soviet Union, Poland has lost its independence. The government which has been set up in Poland is much like that of the Soviet Union, and is under the control of that country. Therefore the people of Poland have little freedom at present.

Czechoslovakia is a new nation. Locate it, to the east of Germany and south of Poland. Czechoslovakia was formed from parts of several countries, and became an independent republic in 1918. Its people are almost all Slavs, the greatest number being Czechs and Slovaks. Does that give you a reason for the country's name? Bohemia, which is part of the republic of Czechoslovakia, has had a long history and a rich culture and was an important kingdom during the Middle Ages. The people of Czechoslovakia formed a democratic nation in 1918, which enjoyed prosperity and freedom and often served as an example to other countries of eastern Europe. However, after the Second World War the country came under the influence of Russia and the people lost much of their hard-won freedom.

Czechoslovakia is about the size of the state of New York. In the west lies Bohemia, an upland almost surrounded by mountains. This highland is a fertile land of broad valleys, low hills, and streams flowing from the surrounding mountains. Thick forests cover the mountain slopes and hills. The people take good care of these forests, planting trees to take the place of those that are cut. In the

east is a rugged mountainous section. In the south these mountains slope down to the rolling plain of Hungary. A high, hilly, corridor runs through the center of the country between the mountain-ringed upland in the west and the mountains of the east. This corridor has long been an important highway. Find it on your map. At one end lies Vienna in Austria, on the Danube River. At the other end lies the great manufacturing region of Poland.

Czechoslovakia has much rich farming land. It grows almost all the farm products used in the country and exports some sugar and grains. After the First World War many of the large estates were divided to make small farms for the peasants who had formerly worked as tenants for the great landlords. Bohemia is the most important farming region, growing large quantities of wheat, barley, rye, oats, potatoes, and sugar beets. In the beautiful mountain region of eastern Czechoslovakia most of the people are farmers, growing their crops in the valleys and on the lower slopes of the mountains. As in Switzerland, herdsmen use the mountain slopes and high valleys for pasturing their cattle and sheep during the summer months. In the south where Czechoslovakia has a small share of the plain of Hungary the farms are larger than in the mountain valleys. But the people of eastern Czechoslovakia usually raise only enough to meet their own needs.

Czechoslovakia's farms and industries are both important. Bohemia is the great industrial center of the country. Here are coal fields and deposits of iron, zinc, uranium, and other minerals. Among the more important industries are the manufacture of iron and steel, heavy machinery, shoes, glassware, and beer. Bohemian glass and porcelain have been famous for centuries. Czechoslovakia has kept up the high quality of this glassware while at the same time introducing more modern methods of manufacture. The forests furnish wood pulp for the paper industry. The farms provide beets for making sugar, hops for brewing beer, and flax for the linen mills. The many other textile mills must import large quantities of wool, rayon yarn, and cotton. Streams and rivers provide hydroelectric power. Dams have been built on some of the rivers, not only to furnish power, but to irrigate some of the farm lands. The center of heavy industry is Pilsen (Plzeň). Locate it on your map on page 246. Here there was an enormous munitions plant, which the Germans took over when they seized Czechoslovakia in 1939. The shoe factories of Czechoslovakia are among the best known and largest in all Europe.



Cutting mirrors in a glass factory



Prague, the capital of Czechoslovakia

Some minerals are mined in the mountainous region in eastern Czechoslovakia, and the forests of this region furnish wood pulp to be used in making paper. Rich coal mines in the northern part of the hilly corridor running through the center of the country supply a large part of Czechoslovakia's coal. This district is the center of the country's iron-and-steel industry.

Manufactured goods are the most important exports, and raw materials for industry are the leading imports. The country's rivers and railroads provide transportation to all parts of Europe and carry Czechoslovakia's overseas trade to ports in northern and southern Europe. The country uses three of Europe's great rivers for transportation. Trace the Oder, the Danube, and the Elbe rivers on your map on page 212. Not only is the Danube an important outlet to the sea, it is also a river highway for trade with the other countries along the Danube.

Prague, the capital, is in northcentral Bohemia. Find it on your map. Through the centuries it came to be one of the most beautiful cities in Europe. It was a rich city during the Middle Ages and was the capital of the kingdom of Bohemia. Many ancient buildings give a medieval appearance to the older parts of the city.

Prague lies on a branch of the Elbe River, which is a busy river highway for Czechoslovakia. Much of the country's overseas trade passes along this river and through the port of Hamburg. Located in a great industrial and agricultural district, Prague is Czechoslovakia's largest city. It is a market for the

products of the surrounding district, and many of these products are used by the city's industries. These include flour mills, sugar refineries, and breweries. The factories of Prague manufacture shoes, textiles, toys, and many of the other articles that carry the familiar trade-mark "Made in Czechoslovakia."

Prague has long been a center of science, literature, and music. It was the home of the composer Dvořák, who loved and studied folksongs. In his music we find not only many Slavic airs, but also some of our own folk melodies.

Austria is the Alpine country lying to the east of Switzerland. Nearly all the Austrian people speak German. For centuries the strength of Austria lay in the way its rulers managed to control nearby states. It was once the strongest country in central and eastern Europe. After the First World War Austria lost its empire and was reduced to a small mountainous country in central Europe. It became an independent republic made up of nine provinces, or states. Then just before the Second World War Austria was seized by Germany. At the end of the war the country was placed under the control of France, Russia, Great Britain, and the United States until it could be given its independence.

Austria is a land of mountains and forests, with not enough farming land to support its people. In the mountains are many small valleys. Here the people live in farming villages, growing crops and raising dairy cows and sheep. Most of the farms are small. Much of the mountainous land in Austria, like that in Switzerland, makes good pasture for sheep and cattle. The best farming lands are along the valley of the Danube River and in the east where Austria's mountains give way to the rolling plain of western Hungary. But since Austria cannot supply the needs of all its people, grains, meats, and other foodstuffs must be imported.

The western mountains with their lakes and waterfalls are especially famous for their beauty.. In this section steep mountains are mirrored in the surface of clear lakes. Thick forests cover the hills and lower slopes of the mountains. Charming villages nestle in the green valleys and on the mountain slopes. The

A valley in the Austrian Alps





The Parliament building in Vienna

houses are of stone and usually have two or three stories, slanting roofs, and balconies on the second story. Here the greatest industry is the care and entertainment of the tourists who come from all over the world to enjoy the scenery and climate.

There are deposits of iron and coal, and mountain streams furnish hydroelectric power. However Austria does not have enough coal for its industries and large amounts must be imported. The forests provide lumber and wood pulp for making rayon and paper. The country exports manufactured goods and lumber and imports food and raw materials. Because Austria has only a few resources it buys more than it sells and must depend in part on the money tourists spend to pay its debts to other countries. Since the country does not have enough resources to produce great industries, the people specialize in making tools, instruments, and luxury goods that require special skills to manufacture. Most of Austria's trade is with its neighbors. Cut off from the sea, Austria's overseas trade usually passes through the German port of Hamburg and through the port of Trieste on the Adriatic Sea.

Vienna, the capital, is a city of beautiful buildings and handsome streets. Before the First World War it was a much more important capital. This fact, together with an excellent location, made Vienna not only the center of government of a great empire, but an industrial and commercial center. Though it has suffered greatly in two world wars and is controlled by the Soviet Union, Great Britain, the United States, and France, it still is an

industrial and commercial city. Vienna is on the south bank of the Danube, the great river highway of central and southeastern Europe. Also it lies at the southern end of the natural corridor through the mountains of Czechoslovakia. Many of the roads and railroads between western and eastern Europe and between northern Europe and the Balkan Peninsula pass through the city. Before the Second World War nearly two million people lived in Vienna. This was about one fourth of the population of Austria.

The city has many gardens, squares, and parks, and its museums, art galleries, and concert halls are famous throughout the world. In the past it was the home of many great composers and scientists. It was here that Johann Strauss composed some of his most beautiful waltzes. The University of Vienna has been a famous center of education. Doctors from all over the world have come to study in its medical school. Vienna has had a brilliant history, and is remembered today as a rich center of music, art, and fashion.

Like many other European countries, Austria suffered greatly from the effects of the Second World War. It will be some years before the country will be able to revive its trade and become popular once more as a resort for tourists.

Hungary is a flat land. It lies on both sides of the Danube River. Most of the country is a rolling plain, a rich grassland which spreads into the neighboring countries of Aus-

Plowing with ox-teams on the great plain of Hungary



tria, Yugoslavia, Rumania, and Czechoslovakia. Surrounded by mountains, the plain is hot during the summer. This climate is excellent for corn. More than half the people of Hungary are farmers, and they raise great quantities of wheat, corn, rye, barley, and potatoes.

As in Poland, much of the land was in large estates owned by a small group of nobles. But in recent years these estates have been broken up into smaller farms owned by the farmers themselves. Many of the farms are large enough and the land flat enough so that modern farm machinery can be used. The farmhouses are usually low buildings of plaster or wood with thatched roofs. The people love color and design, and often the whitewashed walls of their houses are decorated with bright patterns.

Most of the exports of Hungary are agricultural products, such as wheat, flour, cattle, fruits, and corn. The imports are manufactured articles and such raw materials as cotton,

Farmers in Hungary dry their corn in the sun





Budapest is a twin city, lying on both sides of the Danube

wool, timber, coal, and iron ore. Hungary has important deposits of bauxite, the mineral that is used in making aluminum. This rich supply of bauxite has resulted in the growth of an aluminum industry which produces not only pure aluminum, but products of aluminum. The main industries use the raw materials produced in the country. These industries mill grain, pack meat, refine sugar, and make shoes and other articles of leather. There are also textile mills which weave woolen and cotton goods and rayon cloth. Although some of the wool used is raised in Hungary much more is imported, and the cotton and rayon mills also must import their raw materials.

You can see on your map that Hungary is far inland. The main road to the sea is the Danube River, which flows through the center of the country. The capital, Budapest, is on the Danube. At one time it was one of the liveliest and most beautiful cities in Europe. It is really a "twin city," with Buda lying on the west side of the Danube, and Pest across the river on the east bank. The city lies in the heart of the grain-and-cattle region and is a trade center for agricultural products. Many of Hungary's textile factories and flour mills are to be found in the city. Budapest is an important river port, and railroads connect it with other cities of Europe. This lovely city was in ruins at the end of the Second World War. It will take years of hard work to rebuild it.

The Balkan Peninsula. Southeastern Europe is a wide peninsula. It lies between the Adriatic Sea and the Black Sea, and reaches southward into the Mediterranean. Place a bookmark beside the map on page 212, so that you can turn to it easily as you learn about this part of Europe. Look carefully at this peninsula and see how mountainous it is. Find the Carpathian Mountains, the Transylvania Alps, the Balkans, and the rough highland region extending from the Balkan Mountains northwestward along the Adriatic coast. The peninsula is a little larger than our state of California. It takes its name from the Balkan Mountains. *Balkan* means "high ridge."

For centuries this Balkan region has been a passageway between Asia and Europe. It is not hard to see how this happened. Notice that this peninsula and the peninsula of Asia Minor form a bridge between Southwest Asia and central Europe. The straits are so narrow that it is easy to cross from one continent to the other. Now trace the Danube River from its source in the Alps southeastward across Austria and Hungary and through the Balkan Peninsula to the Black Sea. For hundreds of years the Danube was the northern boundary of the Roman Empire. Notice that on each side lie valleys broad or narrow. These lowlands along the Danube run smoothly into the lowland region north of the Black Sea and the Caspian Sea. This was another old route from Asia into Europe.

Along this lowland route from Asia came the Huns in early times, pushing the Teutonic tribes into the Roman Empire. Hundreds of years later, in the Middle Ages, through this lowland rode the conquering Mongols. For a time their great empire stretched from China all the way across Asia into the valley lands of the Balkan Peninsula west of the Black Sea. During the crusades bands of armored knights

A mountain village in northern Yugoslavia



from Europe came through some of these valleys, making their way southeast toward Asia Minor and Palestine. Finally the Turks, after they had conquered Palestine, pushed northwest farther and farther into Europe, until their empire took in most of the Balkan countries.

Each of these warlike invasions left groups of settlers here and there. In addition there was a slower stream of peaceful migration. Groups of people from the north and northeast came southward into the peninsula, attracted by the mild climate of the Mediterranean lands. These groups, coming at different times, each settled a part of the peninsula.

The Balkan peoples. A great number of the people who live in this area are of the Slavic race, like the people of Poland and Czechoslovakia. But the things we have just been recalling help us to understand that the Balkan peoples are really of many races and mingled races. Mountains divide this area into many different sections. It is easy to see why this disturbed passageway region has not formed one nation, but has divided into several small nations, which often quarrel among themselves or with neighbor countries. Time and again these quarrels have led to wars among the Balkan nations.

Besides being of different races, the Balkan peoples are of many different religions. Some belong to the Roman Catholic Church, others to the Orthodox Eastern Church. There are also Jews, Moslems, and some Protestant Christians. In many towns and villages these people of different backgrounds live side by side in friendly fashion. But in times of war and uncertainty, suspicion, doubt, and hatred can arise from these differences.

There are valuable resources in the hill country of the Balkan Peninsula. Also, the straits leading from the Black Sea out into the Mediterranean are very important doorways for transportation and commerce. Stronger European nations have wanted to control the peninsula, or to prevent some other nation from controlling it. At times they have encouraged quarrels between the small Balkan countries, and have fanned the flame of war to gain their own ends.

When the Turks came into the peninsula, many Balkan peoples fought hard to keep their independence, but were conquered and became Turkish subjects. Through long centuries of Turkish rule some of the people continued to fight against the bad government and heavy taxes of the Turkish empire. Their struggles against Turkish rule were often aided by strong nations. Also parts of the northern Balkans were under the rule of Austria. Finally, all of the Balkan peoples won their independence from Austria or from Turkey in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

The Balkan Peninsula is occupied by five countries. Greece we have studied. The others are Albania, Yugoslavia, Bulgaria, and Rumania. These countries have developed much later than such western countries as France and the Netherlands. There are some large cities, but most of the people live in small villages, scattered across the lowland plains or through the rough hill country. Let us get a glimpse of village life in a mountainous section, and then learn a little about each of these four countries.

Suppose we visit a Balkan village. Nikola Kardelas lives in a village in the southern highlands of Yugoslavia. His home is in one of the cottages which straggle up the steep hillside above a mountain stream. Nikki is ten years old, and he is very proud of helping his older brother tend the goats. It makes a boy's muscles strong and supple to follow the goats over the rough craggy mountainsides. Goats can find food on land which is not good

for much else. Next year it may be that Nikki and his best friend will tend the goats alone, while big brother puts his time on better-paying work.

Nikki's clothes look a little strange to us. He wears trousers and a long blouse of white homespun linen. The blouse reaches almost to his knees. His black cap is made of lambskin. Sometimes he carries a heavy sheepskin coat slung on his staff over his shoulder, for at some seasons of the year nights are cold in the highlands. Nikki has no pockets, but he can tuck endless things into the wide sash he wears about his waist. It is of red wool with bright stripes, and was woven by his sister. Nikki's sister learned from her mother how to weave beautiful firm cloth of linen or wool, and she is very skillful with her needle. All the village girls cover their own clothing with embroidery in bright colors. They take great pride in displaying their best work. The *kolo* dance, on Sunday afternoon, is a gay sight, the young men in their white suits and wool jackets, the girls looking like a garden of brilliant flowers.

Although the soil is not very fertile in these southern highlands, every cottage has its vegetable garden, and also its chickens and ducks. In the lower pastures are flocks of sheep, and still lower, wherever the banks of the stream widen out, there are grain fields. Nikki and his friend like to watch the grist-mill at harvest time. In charge of a crew in a small houseboat, it floats downstream, stopping at each farm. The paddle wheel which turns the stone rests on the houseboat and an outrigger. It is turned by the current of the river. When the farmer's grain is ground the mill floats on to the next stop. At the end of the season it is poled upstream by the crew.

Nikki's father has flocks of sheep and goats and takes care of his field of grain and his apple and pear trees. But Nikki wants to be a woodworker like his best friend's father. There is little work for a skilled woodworker in the village and so he spends many months in Belgrade, coming home with the money he has earned and many tales of the big city.

If we should visit Nikki's family at mealtime, they would share with us their big bowl of vegetable soup, with homemade dark bread and soft white cheese. If they knew in time that we were coming, there would be a tasty lamb stew, and at the right season juicy fruits from the valley orchards, apples or pears or delicious purple plums.

Yugoslavia, Nikki's country, is called the Land of the Southern Slavs. It extends along the eastern shore of the Adriatic, across from Italy. On the narrow coastal plain grapevines and nut and olive trees grow. In the north Yugoslavia has a share of the fertile plain of Hungary. Here corn and wheat, tobacco and grapes are raised, and sheep and cattle are pastured. Here are the two largest cities of Yugoslavia, Zagreb and Belgrade, the capital. They are linked by a good modern highway.

The rest of Yugoslavia, the greatest part, is mountainous. The widespread hills and mountains are forested and many of the men make their living in lumbering. Bauxite, copper, and iron ore are mined. Because there are few railways or roads, some parts of the country are not easy to reach. Most of the people in the mountain sections live in small, fertile valleys such as the one in which Nikki lives. While they carry on some farming they also have flocks of sheep and goats and many pigs who feed on the nuts of the forest.

South of Yugoslavia is the country of Albania. Except for a fertile strip along the coast of the Adriatic this little land is very mountainous. The people are mostly hill tribes. There are few towns, and few and poor roads connecting them. The people raise sheep and cattle, and export hides, wool, dairy products, and lumber. This rugged little land,

not much larger than the state of Vermont, has been ruled by many different peoples.

Bulgaria, to the east of Yugoslavia, borders the Black Sea. Bulgaria contains the rough Balkan ranges, cut by many little valleys. Herds of cattle feed in the hills and mountains which cover most of the country, and some farming is carried on in the valleys. Forests and mineral deposits are little developed. In the north large fields of wheat and corn lie in the lowland along the Black Sea and the Danube River. The lowland of southeastern Bulgaria is like the Mediterranean countries with vineyards, tobacco fields, and mulberry trees. Wine and silk are produced. Many acres of roses bloom under careful cultivation in the foothills, and the Bulgarians manufacture the rich perfume called attar of roses. On the map find Sofia, the capital and largest city of Bulgaria.

Rumania, the northernmost state, has both mountains and lowlands. It is mountainous in the northwest and has a central highland of hills and mountains. Rumania has a larger share of good farming land than the other Balkan countries. In the west it shares the rich plain of Hungary, in the south it has a great part of the plain of the lower Danube. There are also fine farm lands on the central highlands and east of the Carpathian Mountains. The lowland plains grow wheat and corn—more corn than any other country in Europe. Cattle and pigs also are raised. Most of the people are farmers. Half of the farms are large enough to use modern machinery, but the rest are small and the people work by hand. Vineyards cover the hillsides, and above them sheep and goats feed in the high, rough pastures. Slopes are wooded, and lumber is exported. At the foot of the Transylvania Alps are rich oil fields and salt mines. Grain, oil, salt, and lumber are exported, and also some manufactured articles.



Yugoslavs dress in their Sunday best

Bucharest, or Bucuresti, the trading center of the southern plain, is the capital and the only large city. Constanţa, on the Black Sea, is the seaport.

These, then, are the little nations of the Balkan Peninsula. What can we say about them all? First, that their peoples belong to many races, with different religions, languages, and customs. This sometimes makes it hard for them to understand each other and face their problems in a spirit of co-operation. Second, no one of them has enough strength to keep larger and more powerful nations from taking their land or their natural resources against their will. Third, more powerful nations, at war with each other, have used these little nations as tools, buffer states, or prizes to be seized. No wonder wars are easy to start in this uneasy section of Europe. After the Second World War most of these countries came under the influence of the Soviet Union.

Modern industry in some of these areas is just beginning. Democracy in some Balkan countries has not yet struck deep roots. But the people of this part of Europe have often shown courage, energy, and independence. With the right opportunities they can make a contribution to a peaceful Europe and a peaceful world.

Study Questions

1. Where are the chief industrial centers of Europe?
2. What natural conditions brought this about?
3. In what countries of Europe is the fishing industry important?
4. What countries export lumber and other forest products?
5. Are the Mediterranean lands chiefly agricultural or industrial?
6. What are the most important exports of the following countries: Denmark, Portugal, Spain?
7. What countries grow grapes and make wine for export?
8. What countries export dairy products?
9. What have German chemists done for their country and for the world?
10. What are the Netherlands' chief industries and how do they depend on trade?
11. What machine industry does Switzerland have?
12. What parts of Europe are especially famous as tourist resorts, and why?

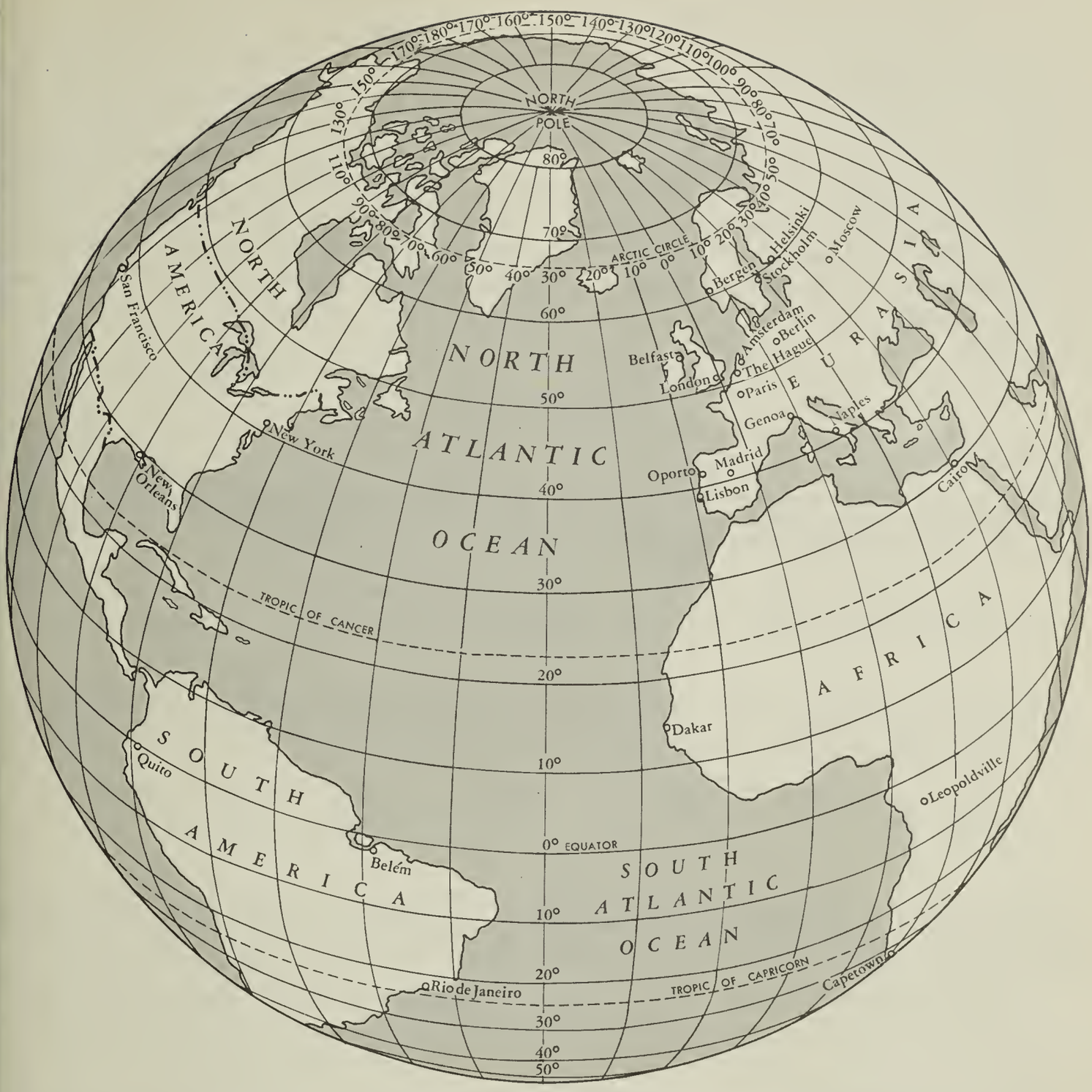
What Country?

Write the correct answers in your notebook.

1. A country that has been called "tulip land."
2. A country that owes much wealth and progress to its chemists.
3. A country that produces half the world's cork.
4. A country in which a large part of the people make their living by fishing or preparing fish products for market.
5. A country which has become famous for its fine clocks and watches.
6. A country in which the farmers do all their buying and marketing through co-operatives.
7. A country where grapes and tree fruits are the most important crops.
8. A little country which depends chiefly on the products of its forests.
9. A new country which has a famous old glass industry and exports fine glassware.
10. A small, thickly-populated industrial country that has been a buffer state.
11. A small country visited by tourists chiefly because of its famous ruins and its glorious past.
12. A very small country in Central Europe, once powerful because its rulers controlled neighboring states.

Circles of Longitude

In Chapter 2 you learned about the parallels of latitude on the globe. Perhaps you have already discovered that the globe has other circles, running north and south. Study these circles on the globe picture on page 267. These are called *meridians of longitude*. The meridians of longitude show east and west distances. A meridian is not a full circle, but a half-circle, running from pole to pole. The meridian from which the other meridians are numbered is called the prime meridian. It passes through the observatory at Greenwich, which is a part of London, in England. From the prime meridian as zero the degrees of longitude are numbered both east and west halfway around the earth to the 180th meridian. Places east of Greenwich are said to be in East Longitude, and places west of Greenwich are in West Longitude. Putting all 180 meridians of East Longitude and 180 meridians of West Longitude on a globe would make it very crowded. So as in the case of the circles of latitude, most maps have a meridian of longitude every 5 or 10 degrees. Below are some exercises to help you practice locating places by latitude and longitude on the globe.



A globe picture showing circles of latitude and longitude

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1. Find the meridian which marks 90° West Longitude. Through what countries of North America does it pass?

2. Find the parallel of 40° North Latitude. Then find the meridian of 120° West Longitude. In what state of our country do they cross?

3. Find the parallel of 50° North Latitude and the meridian of 10° East Longitude. In what country of Europe do they cross?

4. How can you find the latitude or longitude of a spot not on one of the circles marked on the globe? Is this easier on a flat map? Why?

5. Find as nearly as possible the latitude and longitude of the following cities: Paris, Madrid, Berlin, New York, New Orleans, San Francisco.

A Talk about Patriotism

1. What do we mean by patriotism?
2. In what different ways can patriotism be shown?
3. What are the best and wisest ways?
4. Many musicians have expressed their love for their country in song. What patriotic songs of our own country do you know?
5. What patriotic songs of other countries do you especially like?
6. On this page you will find a song with music taken from *Finlandia*, by the great Finnish composer, Sibelius. There were no words to this music at first, but its solemn beauty seemed to tell the composer's love for his native land.

Many poems have been written to express the feeling we find in this music. One of these poems is given here so that you may sing it together. Perhaps you would like to write patriotic words to the music of some other song you know.

Finlandia

Grace S. Dawson — Jan Sibelius



Things to Do Together

1. Make four lists, each one containing the foods produced in one of the sections of Europe you have studied. Plan a lunch consisting of things from each list, and bring them to school, each on a different day. Tell whether the article of food you have brought was imported from Europe or produced in our own country.

2. Have a concert composed of music of the people of different countries of Europe. Find records of national songs, peasant folk dances, or music by great composers. Perhaps you will want to have a concert to represent each section on the day you have the lunch for that region. Find out the native land of each of the following composers: Beethoven, Paderewski, Brahms, Verdi, Grieg, Debussy, Dvořák, and Johann Strauss.

3. Make a collection of articles manufactured in Europe, and see how varied you can make it. Try to get some handmade as well as machine-made articles. You might find a piece of lace made in Belgium, a wood carving from Switzerland or Germany, or hand-woven cloth from some other country.

4. Have a class debate on the following statement: All the nations of Europe should join together to form one big nation as the colonies joined together to become the United States.

5. You may be interested in some particular country in Europe. In this case it would be interesting to start a scrapbook for that country, collecting pictures from magazines and newspapers to paste in it. You may want to include local peasant costumes. If you can't find pictures of these to cut out, you can trace pictures in books and color them for your scrapbook.

12. Soviet Russia: The Land and the People



A Story · Children in Soviet Russia

"What is the trouble, Alexei? Didn't your lessons go well today?"

The brother and sister walked in silence for a minute. The snow squeaked beneath their heavy shoes, and it was growing dark. A crowded trolley car rattled by. Then a voice came from Alexei's muffler.

"No. I didn't finish the problems."

"I'm sorry," said Karla. "Was the teacher cross?"

"No," said Alexei again. "But she looked at me as if she thought I was dumb. I know I'm not stupid, Karla, am I?"

"Of course you're not," replied his sister. "It's because of working at the shoeshop all morning. I get tired, too. Your mind isn't so quick when you're tired. It was better, wasn't it, when your class had lessons in the morning and you worked in the shoeshop in the afternoon?"

"Yes," agreed the boy, "it was better. But anyway I am not so good at lessons in this school as I was at home."

Karla made no reply to this. She knew that Alexei was homesick for the little farming village. He had liked their village school. He did not like the trade school he was going to now. But at least he had not had to come alone.

Karla was only fifteen, but she felt much older than fourteen-year-old Alexei. She felt sorry for her brother. She herself did not miss the village life so much.

"I wish we could go back to the farm and be with Mother, Father, and Petrya," Alexei was saying. "But even there we have to do what the Committee says." He sighed. "It would be nice to do what we wanted sometimes instead of always being told what to do by the Committee."

Karla glanced about anxiously.

"Don't say that, Alexei," she told him. "Remember what happens when you say anything against the government. We are lucky to be able to share a room with Aunt Sophie. The others who came from our village have had to live in that big building near the factory. You know you wouldn't like living there, would you, now?"

"No, I shouldn't," admitted the boy. "But I do hope we can go back to the country this summer."

"Probably we shall," said Karla. "They usually need young people from the city to help harvest. But here we are at the store."

On the shelf behind the counter were long loaves of dark rye bread. The girl in the white jacket gave Karla a loaf, and Karla counted out the coins to pay for it. A little way beyond the grocery store they turned into the dooryard of a square cottage.

"Think how lucky we were to find this place to live," she reminded Alexei. "A whole big room for the three of us is really a pretty fine home, when so many people we know are living crowded in with other families. Besides, Aunt Sophie has been good to us, it has made a lot of difference."

"You are right, Karla," said the boy. "We are lucky, and I did not mean to grumble. Let's get things ready for supper before Sophie gets home."

Inside they quickly pulled off their wraps. Karla spread a cloth over the table, and laid a knife beside the loaf. From a cupboard Alexei brought glasses for the tea, and three heavy bowls. There were steps in the hall outside, and Karla ran to open the door.

"Come in, Aunt Sophie," she cried. "We just got home. Are you tired?"

Aunt Sophie was tall. Bundled in her thick coat and head-shawl she looked very big. Alexei jumped to take her coat. Then, while she sat in one of the straight wooden chairs, he and Karla each tugged off one of the heavy gray felt boots which came to her knees.

"Listen," said Sophie, "I have news. What do you think? I was top in my department at the factory today! Yes, after only six months, top! I finished more razor blades than any other worker! I will get a prize!"

Alexei sighed. "That will never happen to me. I'm just not able to work fast in a factory. I want to be a farmer."

The Land of Soviet Russia

Let's look at Soviet Russia. This is the homeland of Karla and Alexei. The real name for the country we usually call Russia is the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. *Soviet* means "council." *Socialist* means a kind of people's government which controls the making and selling of all goods produced and grown in the nation. This means that the government owns the land, factories, banks, railroads, and all other things used in produc-

ing goods. The country is called the U.S.S.R. for short, just as the United States of America is called the U.S.A. It is also often called the Soviet Union. It is the largest country in the world. The U.S.S.R. covers almost one sixth of the land area of the earth in one unbroken stretch. There are about 211,000,000 people in the U.S.S.R., who are of many different races and speak many different languages.

Look at the globe picture on page 273. Here we see the great continent of Eurasia, stretching in a half circle around the arctic region. Almost all the northern part of this continent is the territory of the U.S.S.R. Southward the Soviet Union reaches to the southern end of the Caspian Sea and the warm deserts of Iran. In the west it borders on Finland. In the east its frozen capes and islands lie near those of Alaska.

Where are the mountains and plains of the U.S.S.R.? Look first at the globe picture on page 273. Then turn to the close-up map of the U.S.S.R. on page 274. The highest ranges of mountains are found in the east and the southeast. They extend from near Alaska all the way to the Black Sea, and form a great mountain wall separating the Soviet Union from its neighbors in Asia. Can you name these neighbors? Locate them on the map.

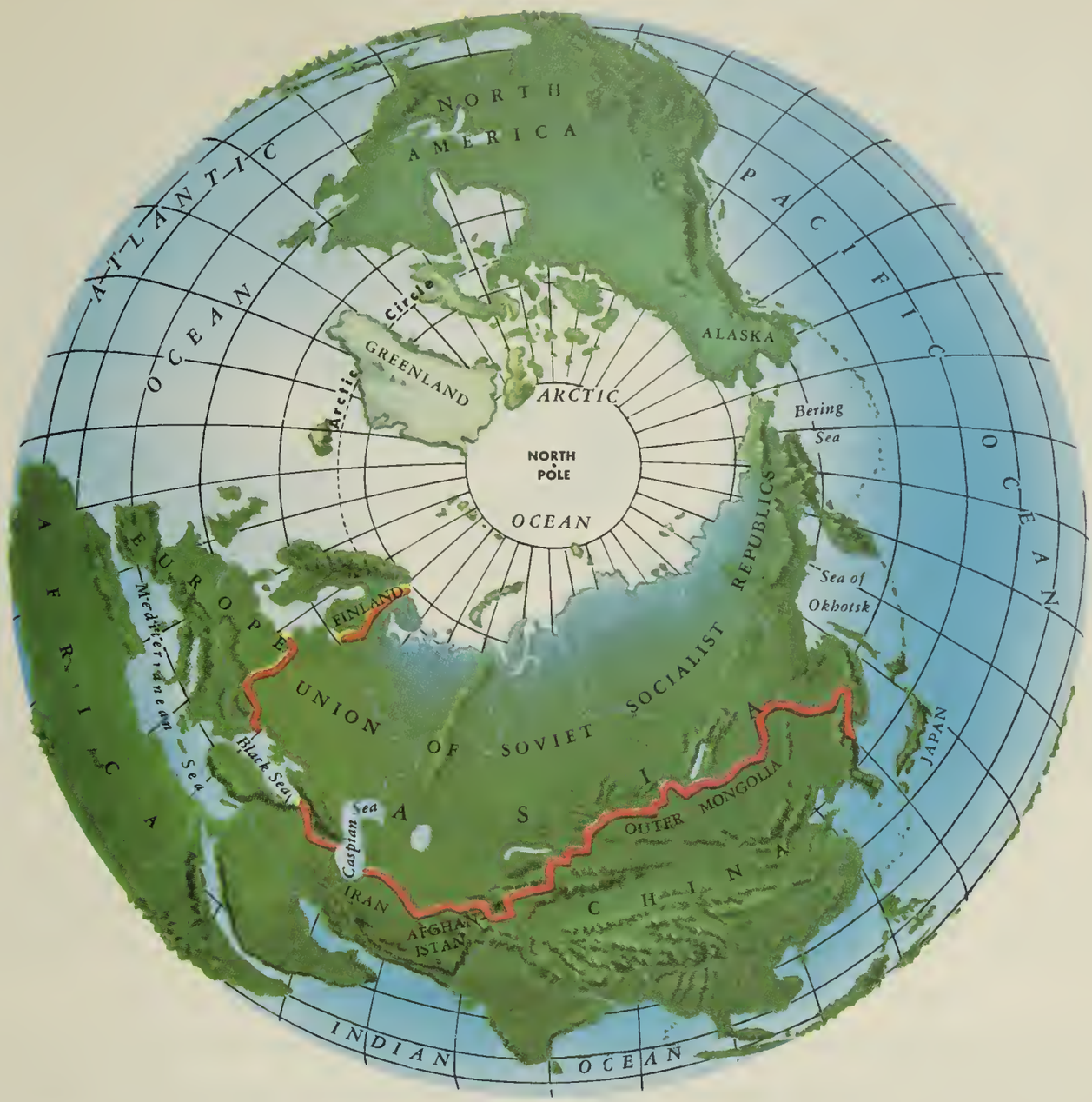
Inside the mountain wall, most of the U.S.S.R. is made up of great plains. Find on your map the West Siberian Plain. The eastern part of this plain rises into higher country, with broken tablelands, hills, and mountain ranges. South of the West Siberian Plain dry steppe lands extend to the mountainous borders of Iran and Afghanistan. West of the Ural Mountains lies the great Russian Plain. The Urals are usually considered the dividing line between European Russia and Siberia. Actually they are made up of hills and uplands with only a few mountains. They extend from the Arctic Ocean almost all the way to the Caspian Sea. South of the Urals is a broad gap of lowland. Through this gap, as through a wide gate from Asia, rode the barbarian Huns who invaded Europe, attacked the Teutonic tribes and helped to destroy the Roman Empire.

On the western boundary of the Soviet Union the wide plains of Russia meet the plains of Finland, Poland, and Rumania. No natural boundaries separate these plains, and we can see why this western border has often been a battleground. On the north the territory of the U.S.S.R. extends to the Arctic Ocean, and includes several islands in that ocean.

Five natural belts of Russia. Climate, soil, and plant growth divide the U.S.S.R. into five great belts, running east and west. Locate each of them on your map as you read. The map of the five natural belts will help you (page 276).

The northern belt is called the tundra. As we look at the map of Russia's seacoast, we see great rivers flowing into the Arctic Ocean. What are the names of the largest ones? We might imagine that here was a fertile country with many harbors. But this seacoast is within the arctic circle, and it is cold most of the time. This makes a great difference. In the tundra the earth is frozen solid, except for a slight thaw during a few short weeks in summer. The harbors and also the rivers are ice-locked most of the year. The large rivers are frozen over except during the short summer period.

In summer the water from melting snow and overflowing streams spreads over the flat land. But it cannot soak down into the earth, which even in summer is still frozen underneath. The tundra is a dreary waste of barren ground, with patches of snow and ice in winter and of swampland in summer. No large trees can live here, only dwarf shrubs and mosses which grow very thick. The moss provides food for the many herds of reindeer.



A global view of Eurasia

The government has sent settlers to this region, and towns have been built. Lumber mills cut the logs brought down the rivers from the forests to the south. Metal and coal are being mined and ports have grown up to export lumber, furs, and fish.

South of the tundra stretches a belt called the taiga. Look at the map and see how far it reaches. The *taiga* is the great northern forest, with thousands of miles of evergreens and other hardy trees. Here live many fur-bearing animals: bear, lynx, fox, wolf, sable, squirrel, and ermine. Some people in the taiga region make their living trapping animals for their furs. In these forests there is great wealth, not only fur-bearing animals but much wood for lumber and paper-making. The government of the U.S.S.R. runs the lumber industry. In the warmer southern forests of the taiga belt the trees are cut down in large strips or sections. The cutover section is then replanted, so that new trees will grow and the timber will be replaced.

Eastern Siberia is the coldest region in the world. It is even colder than the area around the north pole.



The Soviet Union

South of the taiga a narrow strip of brown soils gives way to a wider belt of deep black earth. In this third belt of the Soviet Union wheat, rye, sugar beets, and many vegetables are raised. The part of the black-earth belt which lies in Europe has been farmed for a long time. Now, however, because large-scale farming machinery is used, it is producing more than it once did. There were formerly few people in the Asiatic part of this black-earth belt, and there has been little farming there until recent years. Now this great "middle east" is increasing in population. Large farms have been put into cultivation and better farm machinery is used in planting and harvesting. Miles of grain ripple in the wind across the wide plains.

South of the black-earth belt runs the fourth belt, an uneven belt of steppe country. The steppe, like the black-earth belt, is grass-covered land, with hardly a tree in sight. Light summer rains produce the grass, which seeds and withers, but there is not enough moisture here for trees to grow. This was once the home of roving Mongol tribes. There are still groups of nomads on the steppe, tending their herds of cattle and sheep. Today there are cities here, too, and many of the herders have gone to work in mines and factories. They are producing steel and making machinery for the industries of the U.S.S.R.

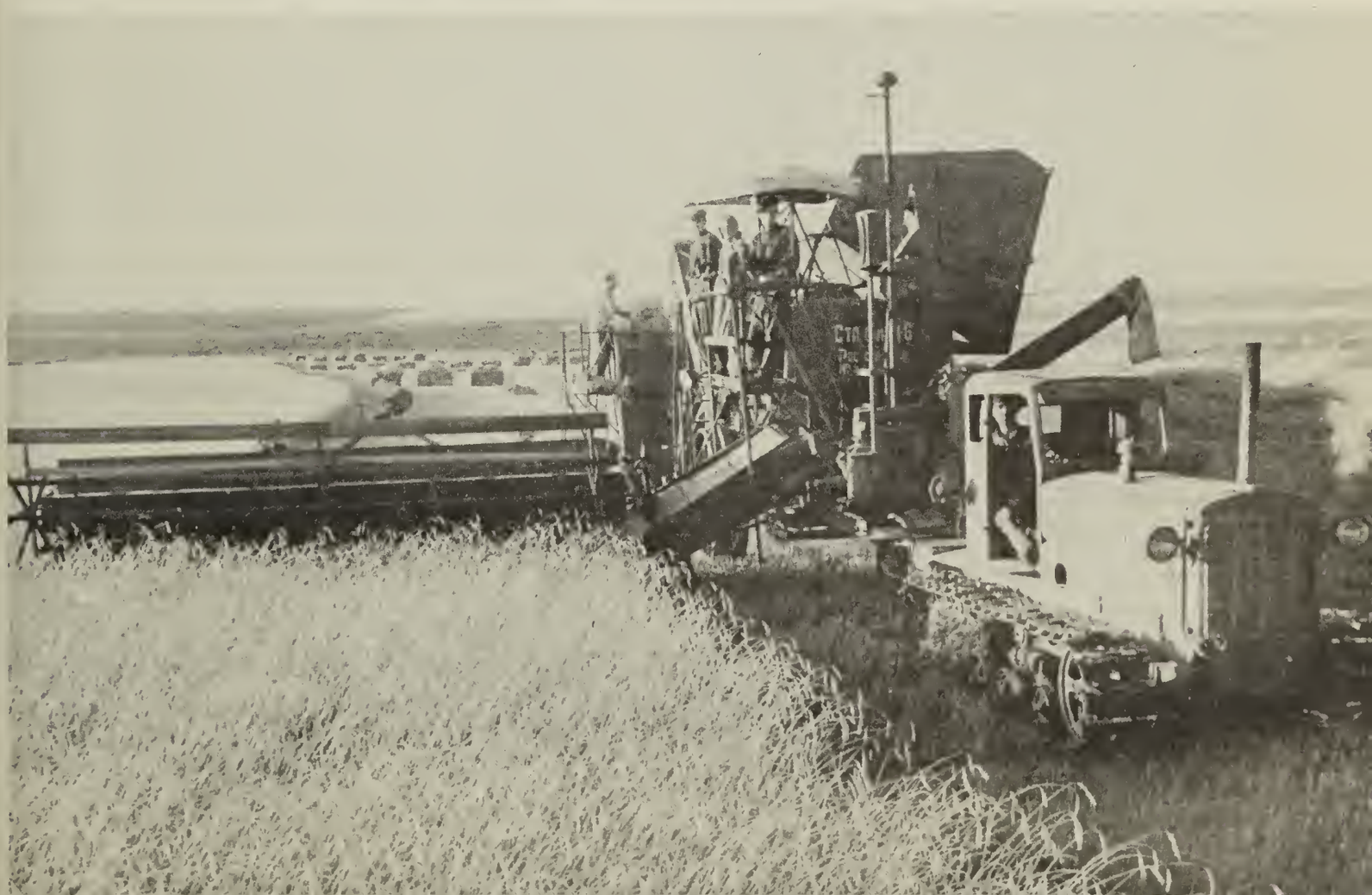
South of the steppe land is the fifth belt, a belt of desert. This strip is not so long. Look on the map and see how it fits into the curve

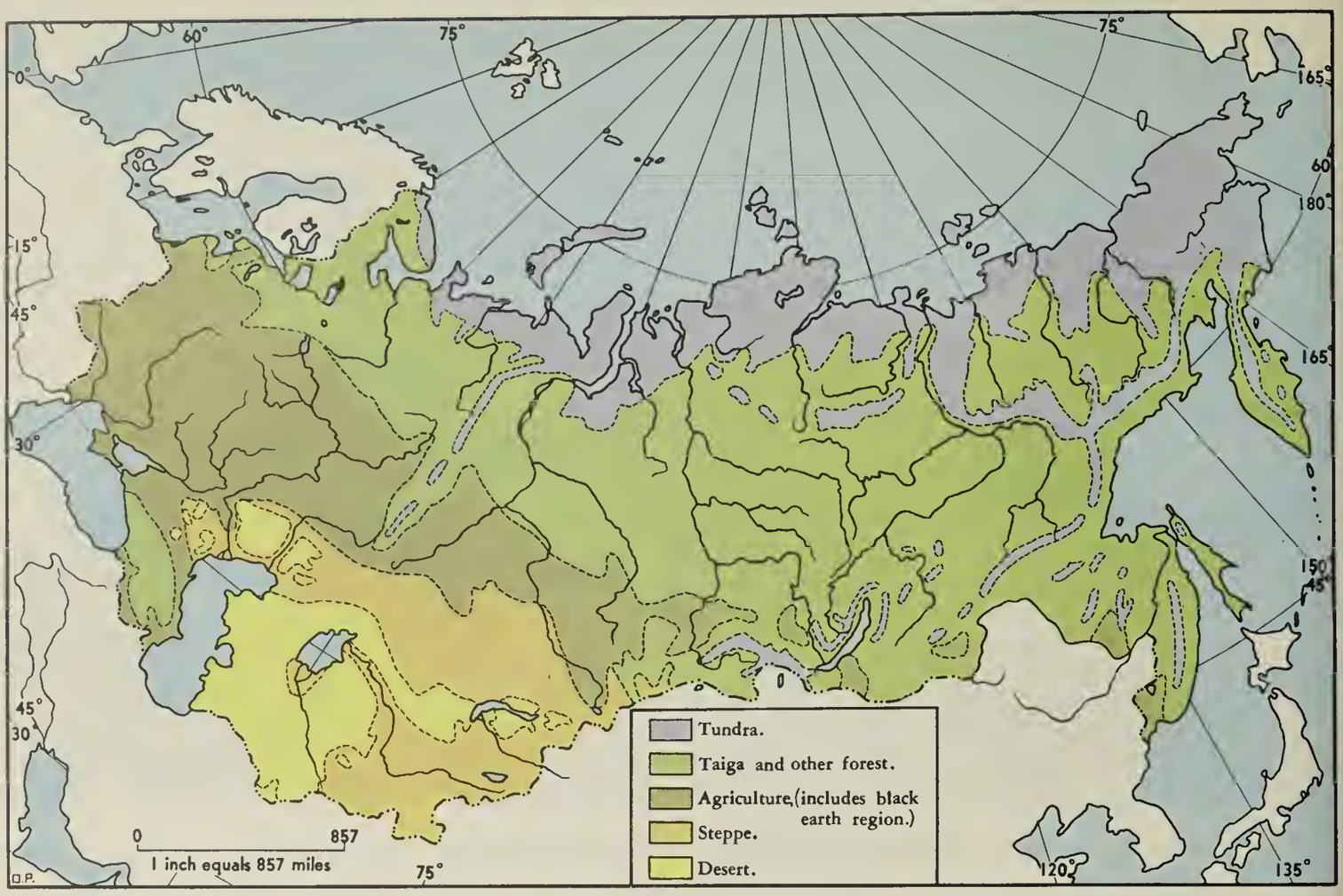


Once nomads herded sheep here; now flocks belong to collective farms

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Rye is harvested in the black-earth belt near the Don River





The five natural belts of the Soviet Union

where the boundary of the U.S.S.R. dips southward in Central Asia. A plain stretches eastward from the Caspian Sea to the Tien Shan Mountains. The heat is intense, but the people have learned to irrigate the land and grow cotton. Here in the Ferghana Valley, among the cotton fields, industrial cities are growing. Some factories spin the cotton and weave it into cloth. Others make the farm machinery needed to raise the cotton.

Perhaps we should add a sixth belt of mountain lands. In the steep mountain passes of the Caucasus, between the Black Sea and the Caspian, are three small republics which are part of the U.S.S.R. Their villages lie in the folds of the mountains or along the narrow plains of the coast. This is a region of snowy peaks, barren rocks, and deep, green valleys.

Where do most of the people of the U.S.S.R. live? It is easy to see that living conditions are very different in different parts of this large country. The three main divisions of the country are Siberia, Soviet Middle Asia, and European Russia. Of these three, Siberia has the smallest population: only fifty million people in a land much larger than the United States. Soviet Middle Asia is a land of little rainfall, of desert and bunch-grass steppe. This region has been rapidly growing in population because of the increase of industry. But three fourths of the people of the Soviet Union live west of the Ural Mountains in European Russia. Here are the older cultivated lands, and the larger and more famous cities. This is the region to which we turn first as we read the story of Russia.

The Russian nation began on the great plain west of the Ural Mountains. Here lived a people called the Slavs. We have already read of other Slavic people in Poland, Czechoslovakia, and other parts of eastern Europe. The Slavs of Russia had settled along the Don, the Dnepr, and the Volga rivers, which you can find on your map on page 274. During the Middle Ages the vikings rowed their long black boats down these rivers seeking trade with the countries of the Mediterranean. The Slavs called these bold Northmen *Russ*. Many of them remained in the Slavic land, and when barbarian tribes attacked the Slavs, the Russ warriors protected them and guarded their trade. They learned the Slav language, and became the nobles and rulers of the Slavs. The land came to be known as Russia.

Then came the nomad Mongol invaders, who swept across all Asia. They poured through the lowland gap between the Ural Mountains and the Caspian Sea, and conquered the Slavs and their Russ leaders. They did not remain in Russia as rulers, but sent officers to collect heavy taxes, or tributes, for more than two hundred years. These were the years when the Mongol khans ruled in the Far East. (Turn back to page 142 and read again about the Mongols.)

At last Ivan IV, a strong ruler, came to power in Russia. Ivan conquered other peoples north, west, and south, and united their lands with his own. Gathering his armies together, he fought the Mongols long and fiercely. Finally he threw off the power of the Mongols and released his people from the payment of the heavy tribute.

Ivan thus started building a large empire. He called himself the "Caesar" of Russia, a title which was shortened to "Czar." Ivan was czar during the sixteenth century. The countries of western Europe, Spain, France, and England had already begun to build strong nations. They were sending ships to sail the seas, and their kings were claiming new colonies. But Russia had no ocean ports, no ships, no explorers, and not much outside trade. There were many wars within Russia. Russia was still a feudal country, where serfs labored on the lands of nobles.

Peter the Great brought many changes to Russia. Peter became czar of Russia in 1682. Czar Peter determined that Russia should be one of the great nations of Europe. He traveled through western Europe, studying shipbuilding and western ways of life. He tried to make Russia follow the ways of the strong nations of Europe. Peter was a warrior, too. He took possession of land on the coast of the Baltic Sea, and built a new capital city near the coast on a river. This was Russia's first ocean port. It was called St. Petersburg, but it has since been renamed Leningrad, which is the name you will find on your map on page 274.

In spite of these changes, life for most of the Russian people was not much different. The nobles had more comfortable homes than before, and they had schools. But the serfs still worked hard. The laws were hard on them, and punishments were cruel. Russia remained a feudal country, with only a small middle class of merchants. There was no Renaissance or Reformation to change their ways of thinking, and no Industrial Revolution to change their ways of working.

During the next two hundred years the western European countries changed rapidly. Cities grew, manufacturing increased, and steamships and locomotives made travel quicker and easier. Freedom grew, too. But there was little freedom in Russia.



Peter the Great studied shipbuilding in western Europe

Russia was far to the east. Its people at first knew little about these changes. The czars ruled with absolute power. Their armies carried this power eastward into Asia. Gradually Russia extended all the way to the Pacific Ocean, and took in that large part of northern Asia called Siberia. But Russia remained a feudal country until 1861, just before the slaves were freed in our country by the Civil War.

At that time the serfs gained some freedom, but even then few of them had any land or enough money to buy land. They worked for small pay on the lands of the great landowners, or in the factories which were now beginning to appear in Russia. The people were unhappy and restless. They began to learn about the changes in other countries, and leaders arose who felt that changes must come to Russia, too.

How the Revolution came. Many people in Russia wanted to be rid of the czar and his nobles. Some believed that the people who did the work should run the government, and should take the factories and the farms from their owners and work them for themselves. The people who thought this way were called Bolsheviks, or Communists, and their leader in Russia was Lenin. Then in 1914 came the First World War. The Germans pushed into Russia and the Russian people suffered bitterly. They felt that the czar had led them into the war. In 1917 the czar was removed, and a time of great trouble and confusion followed.

Finally the Bolsheviks, under the leadership of Lenin, seized control of the new government. The czar and his family were killed. There was much fighting and bloodshed. The workers took over the factories. The peasants seized the big estates, and sometimes killed the owners. The people of Russia had been held down for centuries, often with great cruelty. Now they used some of the same harsh methods that had been used on them by their rulers.

How Communist Russia began. After the long years of war and revolution, the people of the Soviet Union under their new leaders had to begin rebuilding their country. They were faced by many difficult problems, for they

wanted to make a modern country out of what had been a backward and almost feudal nation.

First, the Communists seized industry. Then machinery was brought from other countries. Foreign scientists and engineers came to Russia to advise and direct. A great dam on the Dnepr River was built by an American engineer. Mines were opened to obtain more coal and iron. Smelters and factories were built in many parts of the country, not only in Europe, where the older cities were, but also in Asia, in the wide lands of Siberia.

Second, farming was changed. Collective farms were started. A collective farm is one in which all the land of many farmers is combined into one large farm, which is managed by a board of directors. Each farmer has his own vegetable garden and a house for his family. But he owns none of the land of the big farm itself. The farmer works a certain number of hours each day on the land, and the directors decide how much each person shall be paid. Part of the farm produce is paid to the government as rent.

When this system of collective farming was first ordered by the government, many farmers would have nothing to do with it. They wanted to keep their own farms, and refused to give up their land. Some farmers revolted, and would not hand over their grain and their farm animals. But the government seized the grain and the animals and crushed the revolt, even though it meant bloodshed and starvation.

Gradually the people were forced to become accustomed to the new ways. Farming machinery, drawn by tractors, was put to work on the collective farms. New areas, which had never been farmed, were brought into cultivation. In some regions besides the collective farms, large state farms were started. The men who work on these farms are paid for their hours just as factory workers are paid.

Workers on a collective farm thresh grain





A dam being built in Soviet Middle Asia

Third, the Communists controlled education. At the time of the Revolution less than one fifth of the people in the U.S.S.R. could read or write. Schools were opened in the factories and villages, where grown people, as well as children, learned to read and write and where they were forced to learn about communism. Many books were printed, some of them in languages which had never been written down before. But the people could read only those books, magazines, and newspapers that were approved by the government.

In 1941 Russia was again at war. During the Second World War German armies again invaded Russia. In battle after battle they pushed the Russians back. But the factories of the U.S.S.R. were making planes, weapons, and clothing for the soldiers. The Germans advanced and captured cities and towns. But the Russian armies had fighting men and supplies. Their own land produced a great deal, and much was sent to them from the United States and Great Britain. Finally, at Stalingrad on the Volga River, a great battle took place. The Soviet armies stopped the Germans and began to push them out of Russia, back to Berlin. The development of the U.S.S.R. as an industrial country and aid from the United States and Great Britain had made it possible for Russian armies to defeat the Germans. But the war left behind it a country in which many homes and resources had been destroyed or ruined. Again the work of rebuilding began.

The Communist Party. The Bolshevik group is now usually called the Communist Party. The name comes from the belief that the workers should own all land and factories, the "means of production," *in common.* Actually everything is owned by the government. There is now only one political party in the Soviet Union. No other party is allowed. When other political parties have been started, they have been put down by force, and their leaders have been executed or sent into exile. Therefore the Communist Party is the real government of the Soviet Union, even though the party has only about six million members. This means that only one Soviet citizen out of every thirty-two is a member of this party. All the important government leaders are members of the party, and the party leader, Josef Stalin, is also head of the Soviet government.

The government of the U.S.S.R. The Soviet Union is composed of a group of republics. Largest of all is the Russian Republic. White Russia and the Ukraine are also large, thickly populated states. The map on page 274 shows some of these divisions. The smaller republics lie along the western and southern borders in a chain. Each republic is governed by a *soviet*, or council, and by a committee of Communist Party leaders. No one can run for office unless he is chosen by the leaders of the Communist Party. In control over all the republics is the Supreme Soviet, to which members are elected by the soviets of the different republics. This supreme council is controlled by a committee of party leaders.

The old city of Moscow is the capital of the Russian Republic, and also of the U.S.S.R. The ancient Kremlin, or inner fortress and palace of the czars, still stands. In this carefully guarded fortress the Supreme Soviet meets, and here the party leaders and heads of government departments have their offices.

The Soviet way of life is different from our way of life in the United States. The government of the U.S.S.R. has much more power over the daily lives of its people than

The Kremlin is the headquarters of the government of Soviet Russia



our own government. It has complete control over newspapers and magazines and writers, and can stop them from printing anything it does not approve. And people in the U.S.S.R. do not have freedom of speech. They are not allowed to say whatever they want to about their government and how it is run. The only political party is the Communist Party, and no one is allowed to form any other party.

The government controls foreign trade and owns all industries and all land. It runs the mines, factories, banks, and communication systems. All goods must be sold through stores controlled by the state. Strikes are forbidden and workers are often shifted wherever they are needed, since they all are working for the government.

The people in the different republics of the Soviet Union are of many races and speak many languages. Some of them are Slavs, like the Russians, who are the largest single nation in the U.S.S.R. Some are Mongolian, and are closely related to the Chinese. All these different groups are members of the U.S.S.R. Each has its own language, its own customs, and its own schools. But the people in these republics are all ruled by the Communist Party and so have little freedom.

The influence of the Soviet way. Since the Second World War most of the neighbors of the Soviet Union have been forced to set up Communist governments within their own borders. The people in these countries have not been allowed to choose their own governments. The Communist governments that have been set up have been organized by a small group in each country with the aid of the Soviet Union. You studied these countries in Chapter 11. They are Poland, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Rumania, Bulgaria, and Albania. They are under the control of the Russian Communist Party. Because the Soviet Union is so much stronger than these countries their people have had to do what the Russian Communists tell them. Yugoslavia also has a Communist government, but it is not controlled by the Russian Communists. Also the Soviet Union has helped the Communists in China to seize control of that country. So in studying the Soviet way of life it must be remembered that it has a great influence in the life of present-day Europe and Asia.

A Nation of Many Resources

The U.S.S.R. has large resources. The Soviet Union has about 211,000,000 people. In earlier times most of them lived in the western part of the country. Recently they have been moving by the thousands into Soviet Middle Asia and Siberia, even to the far eastern borders of the U.S.S.R. They are building new industrial cities, working in the mines, cultivating the farm land, and cutting the timber needed to make Russia strong.

First of all, there is plenty of iron and coal. From our study of Britain we remember how important iron and coal are to industry. Iron is necessary to make machinery. Coal is used to smelt the iron ore and to make power to run the machines. The U.S.S.R. has many coal mines. Look carefully at the map on page 274. Find the Don River. It flows into the Sea of Azov, which is a northern arm of the Black Sea. In the broad valley through which the Don flows is a large supply of coal. This valley is called the Don Basin, or the *Donbas*. The Donbas region is one of the greatest sources of coal in the U.S.S.R. Another important source is in Siberia in the foothills of the Altai Mountains. Locate this region on your map. It is called the *Kuzbas*.

On the same map notice the small marks

that mean iron mines. Some are west of the Don region. Iron and coal are both found in this region. This was the first large industrial district. But a great many other important iron sources have been discovered. There are iron mines south of the Kuzbas region, too, near the coal. The Ural Mountains, especially, have much iron. The southern end of this range extends into the treeless steppe. Here is a mountain so full of iron that it draws the compass needle away from the north. It is called Magnet Mountain. The busy mining city of Magnitogorsk is located here, and its factories make tractors, motorcars, and airplanes.

Coal and iron deposits near Moscow have helped to make that city the heart of another important industrial district. Here many automobiles and airplanes are manufactured.

The Soviet Union has very valuable platinum deposits. Manganese, used in purifying and hardening steel, is found in great abundance. There are also supplies of mercury, asbestos, copper, zinc, lead, and nickel.

The oil of the U.S.S.R. comes chiefly from the region bordering the Caucasus on the north. This is the region of high mountains between the Black Sea and the Caspian. The largest petroleum center of all is at Baku near the Caspian Sea. Here are great oil refineries and other manufacturing plants. Farther northwest is another large oil field. At the western end of the Caucasus mountain range find the port of Batum on the Black Sea. A pipe line 510 miles long brings the oil along the southern slope of the mountains from Baku to Batum. Here it is loaded into tanker ships. There is another oil field north of the Caspian Sea, and the Urals contain oil in the southern part of the range. Oil has also been found in other regions, and the search is still going on.

Oil wells at Baku on the Caspian Sea



Electricity is widely used in the U.S.S.R. Electricity is the powerful modern servant. It is not expensive, and electric power stations dot the country. Whatever fuel is nearest, peat or coal or oil, can be used to make electricity. The rivers are also sources of power.

Transportation and trade. Transportation has been one of the real problems of the U.S.S.R., because the country is so large. There have never been many automobiles, and there are few good highways. The Trans-Siberian Railroad is the only railroad which extends the full length of the Soviet Union. It runs from the old cities in the west to the harbor of Vladivostok on the Pacific coast, and other railroads branch from it through the center of the country. Other railroads and roads are now being built.

Old Russia in Europe depended for much of its transportation on its great rivers—the Don, the Dnepr, and the Volga. The Volga is the longest river in Europe, and for hundreds of years it was the great highway of trade for Russia. Probably the Russian song we know best is the "Song of the Volga Boatmen." It was sung by the peasants as they plodded together along the shore, pulling the heavily-loaded barges up the river. It took a long, long time to move goods in this fashion. Now there are air bases, and quick transportation by plane is helping to tie the country together.

Kiev, the capital of the Ukrainian Republic, is one of the largest cities in the Soviet Union. It is an important center of industry and trade



Russia does not usually need to import food for its people as Britain does. The greater part of the Russian people still live on farms. Wheat is an important crop, and oats, rye, barley, and potatoes are raised. Sugar beets grow in the western plain of Russia in Europe, and flax is raised farther north. Here wet winds from the Atlantic make the climate damp, like that of Ireland, and there are large peat bogs.

Russia has never been a great trading nation. Even now the government exports only enough to pay for the things the country needs. Lumber and wood pulp from the great forests are shipped from Vladivostok on the east coast, and from Leningrad on the Baltic Sea. Murmansk, north of Finland, is Russia's only open ocean port free from ice the year round. Beautiful furs from the cold regions of the north are exported from here. Batum and Odessa are the important Black Sea ports.

When we look at Russia's ports we understand why the Russians have not been a seafaring people. Russia has no good ocean harbors. The Caspian Sea is really a large lake with no outlet to the ocean. The Black Sea has only one outlet, through narrow straits, to the Mediterranean. But these straits have always been part of other nations which could easily stop Russian ships. The port of Leningrad is closed by ice in winter. Vladivostok on the Sea of Japan is hemmed in by the Japanese Islands, and is far from Europe. Russia's ports along the Arctic are far from ocean highways and frozen much of the year.

But with the coming of the Air Age it will not matter so much that the country lacks good seaports. The Air Age has made possible direct routes and speedy transportation. On page 188 is a global map of the Northern Hemisphere. As you look carefully at this you can see that Russia has become very close to us by air. Travel and trade between the U.S.S.R. and the United States once had to go across the Atlantic, and took many days. Now cargo and passenger planes can go the shortest way from Seattle to Valdivostok over the "top of the world," and Moscow is hours instead of days away from New York.



Cotton factory in the cotton-growing region

Study Questions

1. What is the full name of the U.S.S.R. and where is this large country?
2. Where are the mountain ranges of the U.S.S.R. and where are the plains?
3. What are the natural belts of Russia and what grows in each?
4. What are the three great divisions of the Soviet Union, and in which do most of the people live?
5. What did the vikings have to do with the beginning of Russia?
6. Which of the czars tried to make Russia modern, and built a northern port city?

7. When were the serfs finally set free?

8. Who was the leader of the Bolsheviks who seized control of the new government?

9. Where are the chief coal and iron regions of the U.S.S.R.?

10. Where is the largest oil center?

11. Where are the industries of the U.S.S.R. located?

12. Why does Russia have a transportation problem?

13. Do the people of Soviet Russia have the same freedoms as the people of our country have? Explain why you think they do or do not.

14. Who heads the government of the U.S.S.R. today?

Some Questions to Think About

1. What kind of problems must be solved in Siberia and Alaska? How are the problems the same, and how are they different?

2. Do you think that Russia needs to trade with other nations as much as Great Britain does?

3. How will the Air Age change Russia?

Interesting Things to Do

1. Look in newspapers and magazines for articles about the people and ways of living in Soviet Russia. Be prepared to tell your classmates what you have learned from these articles about how life in Russia differs from life in a democracy such as ours.

2. Perhaps you have heard a recording of the *Nutcracker Suite*, by the Russian composer, Tschaikowsky. Look through some of the music books and recordings in your school to find the names of other selections by such Russian composers as Rachmaninov and Rimsky-Korsakov.

3. On the map on page 188 find an airway route from the United States to Soviet Russia. If you were to fly from any city in the United States to the north pole and then in a straight line southward, what country would you reach first?

4. Make a map of Soviet Russia in clay or papier-mâché, showing the chief physical features. Paint in the principal rivers and the different soil belts. Mark in the coal, iron, and oil resources.

5. The radio in Soviet Russia is controlled by the government, and the people can read only those books and newspapers that are allowed by the government. Discuss in class how this takes away the freedom of the Russian people. Discuss the importance of keeping up with world news and local news by reading newspapers and listening to the radio. Why is this necessary in a democracy?

Self-testing Games

In the Story of Russia

Bolsheviks	*czars*	*Communists*
Mongols	*Slavs*	*vikings*

Each word above matches one of the numbered descriptions below. Copy the numbered phrases in your notebook, and after each put the correct word.

1. Early natives of the Russian plain.
2. Bold traders who came later.
3. Invaders from the east.
4. Early rulers of Russia.
5. Revolutionists who overthrew the rulers.
6. Those in control of the U.S.S.R. today.

Important Products of the U.S.S.R.

In your notebook write

1. *Five* important products of the farm lands of the U.S.S.R.

2. *Five* valuable resources from the mines of the U.S.S.R.

3. *Three* exports from the northern forests of the U.S.S.R.

Reports and Outlines

When you are asked to make a report it is wise to use an *outline* in preparing it. One good way to do this is to think about your subject, and see if it can be divided into several parts. Suppose your report is to be on "Transportation in the U.S.S.R." A little thought will tell you that you will need to talk about at least three different kinds of transportation, namely (1) river boats, (2) overland trains, and (3) air lines. This helps you in gathering your information and telling it to the class. If you are writing the report, an outline helps you to divide your material into para-

graphs. If you are to give an oral report, you may put the three topics, which are called *headings*, on a slip of paper to help you remember what you want to tell.

An outline, you see, is a framework. A simple outline is merely a list of the main headings, or topics, into which your subject is divided. In a fuller outline each of these headings is divided into shorter parts called *subheadings*, or *subheads*. To help you remember clearly, it is a good idea to number headings and subheads in a different way. Suppose you are making a report on the "Steel Industry in the U.S.S.R." Your outline might look like this:

I. Raw materials
   1. Iron ore—where found?
   2. Coal—where found?
   3. Other materials used—where found?

II. Manufactured goods
   1. Factory machinery—for what use?
   2. Farming tools—where used?
   3. Locomotives—for what railroad?
   4. Building materials—which kinds?

Such an outline helps a great deal when you hunt through books or magazines for report material. You hunt for information by *skimming* the articles you find. When you come to facts about one of your subheads, write down what you wish to tell and label it with the title of the subhead. Put these notes together according to your outline, and the information is ready for you to write or tell.

Making an outline of what you read is an easy way to help yourself remember and study. Try making an outline of this chapter in your notebook.



13. A Hilltop View of Europe

While reading these last three chapters you have been traveling through Europe—twentieth-century Europe. You have learned about so many countries and peoples that it is easy to be confused, or mixed up. Again, in imagination, suppose we climb a hill and look back over the way we have come. Perhaps we may be able to see more clearly the things we have found in Europe, and what they mean.

The nations of Europe differ from one another. Looking across Europe, from Ireland and Portugal to the Soviet Union, we see many nations. Some of them are large countries, and some are small. Some are strong nations, and some are weak. Some of the land is fertile and food-producing, while other land provides the raw materials of industry, such as iron, coal, and forest trees. In some places the chief activity is trade and commerce.

But probably the most interesting thing to us is not simply the size or wealth of these countries, but the people and their lives. We cannot really know about countries until we have learned something about the way their people make their living. We need to know something about what their land gives them, and what they do with the land. And we want to know, too, about the courage, energy, thrift, and intelligence which have made their countries what they are.

The first need is for food. The people of Europe produce their food and earn their living in many different ways. Some countries, such as Ireland, Greece, and Spain, are still mostly agricultural. Other countries, like Great Britain and Belgium, are chiefly industrial. Some, like France, Sweden, and the U.S.S.R., are both agricultural and industrial.

There is one thing that it is important to remember when we look at all these countries and study the way their people live, and want to live. The nations and peoples of Europe have all developed in different ways at different times. Let us see for a moment what this can mean.

France was among the first countries in Europe to become an independent and unified nation. This was partly because France was protected on almost all sides by natural barriers against the dangers of attack. For many years France grew strong under powerful kings who were able to fight off the attacks of her enemies. France thus became a strong nation, but not yet a democracy. When the French people finally did win the rights of democratic government, they were able to spread this democracy throughout all France.

Czechoslovakia, on the other hand, did not become a nation until 1918. The country is squeezed into the middle of Europe, and is open to attack through wide plains and broad mountain passes. The people of Czechoslovakia have been ruled in the past by many different nations. At times their churches were attacked, and the people were not allowed to have their own schools or even to speak their own language. Yet all this time they kept their language, their culture, and their hopes for freedom.

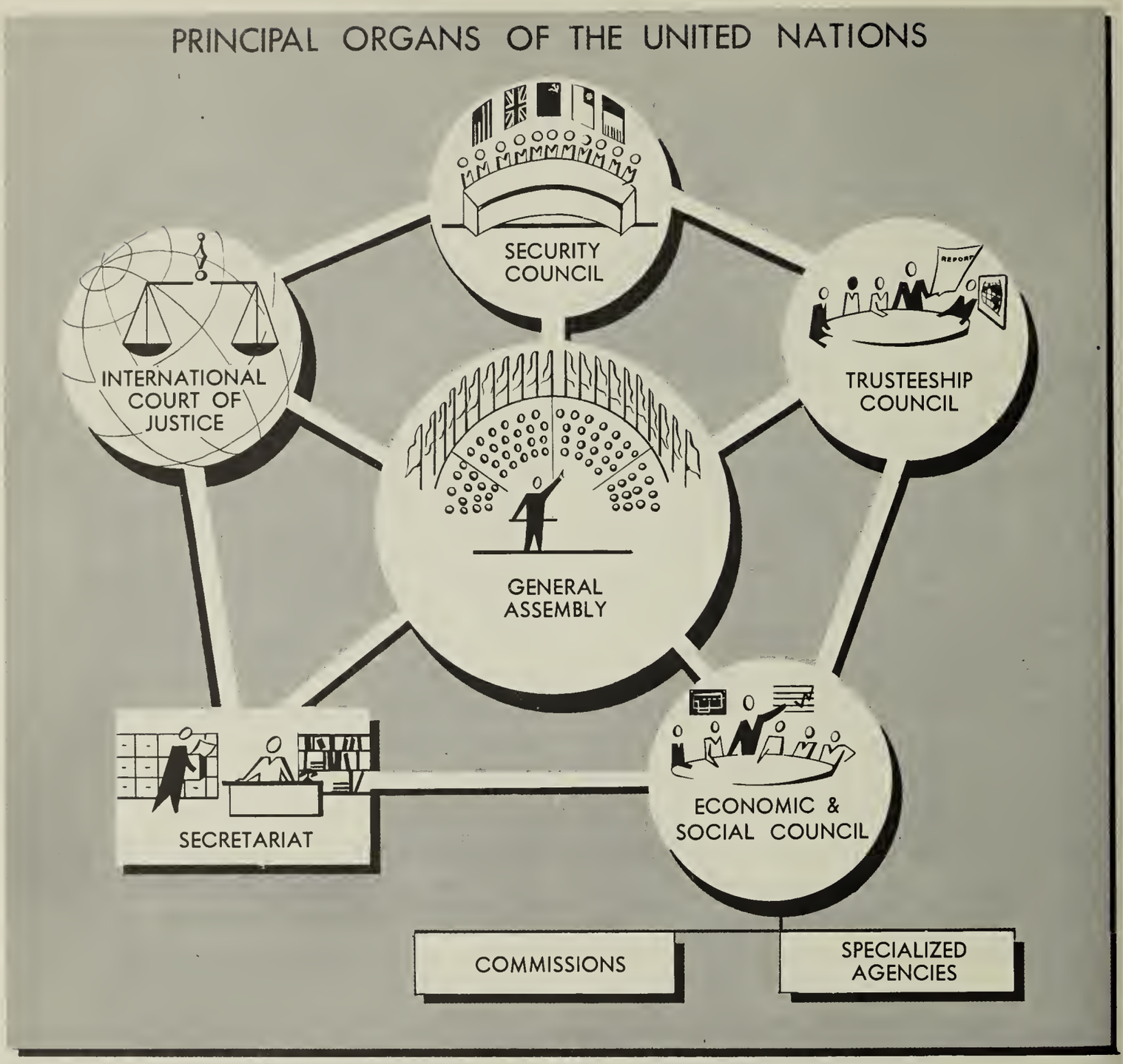
Freedom finally came through the Allied victory in the First World War. The Czech and Slovak people went to work to build their country. Then, after only twenty years of independent life, their country was invaded by German armies and became a part of Hitler's German empire. Yet many Czech and Slovak patriots fought against the invader, blowing up German trains, slowing up the work in German factories. Czechoslovakia regained its independence after the Second World War, only to lose it when the country came under the control of the U.S.S.R. The people of Czechoslovakia cannot look back with pride upon centuries of free nationhood. But they can claim proudly the bravery and patience of a people which struggles toward freedom, even under foreign conquerors.

Democracy too has developed differently in different parts of Europe. Britain, as we have seen, was among the first to become a democracy. And Britain has often been a light of encouragement for democracy in other countries. Our own country won its freedom because the first Americans fought to keep their rights as freeborn Englishmen. The French Revolution started partly because some Frenchmen wanted the same rights and freedoms as Englishmen. The British people today owe their liberties to the strength, bravery, and wisdom of British people in earlier times.

Italy has not yet had a good chance to learn what democracy can mean. But always during the last hundred and fifty years there have been Italians who have worked hard for a democratic Italy. They have had strong enemies. Sometimes the struggle has cost them their lives. After the First World War, Italy was ruled by a dictator, Mussolini. He first took away the liberties of the Italian people, and then led them into the Second World War.

Now the work for Italian democracy has begun once more. The people of Italy have had little experience with freedom and self-government in recent years. Their cities and fields have been partly destroyed by war. The development of democracy in Italy will be a hard task. The people of Italy are now facing some problems which the British and French have already solved. With good will and hard work these problems can be solved in Italy too.

Differences among nations and peoples are very important in Europe. We in the United States sometimes have trouble understanding this. People speak somewhat differ-



Major parts of the United Nations Organization

ently in Kansas and Georgia and Massachusetts, but they talk the same language. California has never decided that it wants to seize the salmon fisheries in the state of Washington. New York has never marched into Vermont and tried to teach the people there that New York is a better state than theirs. The governor of Illinois does not send armed guards to stop people entering the state and make them show all their papers and their money. We have been able to develop a great nation partly because we have not had to deal with some problems which most Europeans have always had.

We have seen that in Europe there are many countries, with many races and religions, and with many ways of looking at things. These differences have been important in causing the wars from which Europe has suffered.

The boundaries of European countries have shifted back and forth after every important war. Nations have sometimes fought bravely to win their independence. Too often they have fought simply to seize the wealth and territory of other countries. Sometimes a people has been working toward democracy, only to have it taken away by a stronger ruler from a neighboring state. War has brought suffering and hardship to the people. It has slowed up peaceful development. It has broken up the life of farm and factory and home.

All the peoples of Europe need peace and want peace. They need to build up trade and agriculture and industry. They need peace to make the changes and improvements which modern science has made possible, and which can bring them prosperity. This is one of the main problems today—peace and security for all the people of Europe.

The peoples and governments of Europe, if they really want peace and security, must learn to co-operate with one another and with the rest of the world. Some of this co-operation can come through the efforts of the European countries among themselves. They can take important steps toward progress and prosperity, if they get together to work out the problems which belong to them all in common.

The peace of each nation in Europe really depends on the peace of every other nation in Europe. In the same way, the peace and security of the rest of the world depend on the peace and security of Europe. Almost all the countries of the world belong to the United Nations. If they all work together to make the United Nations a success, they can help to preserve the peace of the world.

This is probably the hardest job the peoples of the world face. The different countries and governments have not yet learned to co-operate. They do not understand each other's problems. Many do not trust each other. They still have disputes and disagreements among themselves, disputes which in the past have always led to war. But the United Nations can give the people of Europe and of the world a chance to solve their problems peacefully. And the United Nations has the support and co-operation of the United States.

What has the United States to do with the problems of Europe? Twice in the twentieth century our country has been drawn into wars in Europe. Many American men have been killed or wounded in the fighting. We want and need a peaceful world. The United States wants none of the land of Europe. It wants none of Europe's natural resources, except through peaceful trade. But if there is anything we can do to help these troubled nations to live in peace, we should do it. We shall really be helping ourselves, by helping to build a peaceful world. That is why the United States worked hard to form the United Nations. That is why our country is taking an active part in its work. All this we see and think about on our hilltop overlooking Europe. Now we shall come down the hill and start on our journey through the countries of twentieth-century Asia.

Hilltop Questions about Europe

1. What are the oldest nations in Europe?
2. What are some of the newest nations in Europe?
3. How are they different? How are they alike?
4. In what countries has democracy grown strongest in Europe?
5. What different kinds of democratic development can you think of?
6. For what countries of Europe is trade most necessary?
7. For what country or countries do you think it is least necessary?

8. Is trade important for all countries today?

9. Why is co-operation among the countries of Europe so necessary?

10. Why is the United States interested in what goes on in Europe?

Hilltop Questions for Class Discussion

1. What problems must be solved in an industrial country in order to gain freedom?

2. What problems does an agricultural country have which can be solved with the help of machines?

3. Does machinery solve problems, or does it create new problems?

4. How do you think Europe can help to solve the problem of war?

Study the Europe of Today

The Second World War brought serious problems and sudden dangers to almost all the countries of Europe. After the war, Europe as a whole was in a terrible condition, with cities in ruins, industry destroyed, and agriculture at a standstill. The lack of food, clothing, and shelter was very serious. Many governments were changed by revolutions and violence because the people were so miserable. It will take years to bring real peace, plenty, and security to these troubled countries.

As you review Europe from the Hilltop, make a special study of current events in newspapers and magazines. Learn all you can about the present state of affairs in the agriculture, industry, and government of these countries. Why should we know about conditions in Europe today?

Some Interesting Books about Twentieth-Century Europe

ANGELO, VALENTI. *Nino.* The Viking Press, New York, 1938. A true-to-life story of a little Italian boy in about 1900.

BRINK, CAROL. *Mademoiselle Misfortune.* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1936. A story of modern France which girls enjoy.

BUFF, MARY and CONRAD. *Kobi.* The Viking Press, New York, 1936. A Swiss boy's life herding cows on the high summer pastures of the Alps.

BURGLON, NORA. *Children of the Soil.* Doubleday, Doran & Company, New York, 1932. A story of a boy and girl of Scandinavia, their customs and holidays.

HASKELL, HELEN. *Katrinka.* E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., New York. Story of a little Russian peasant girl before the Revolution, and her training to be a Russian ballet dancer.

KELLY, ERIC P. *Land of the Polish People.* Frederick A. Stokes Company, Inc., New York, 1943. Fine story of Poland's history, with many photographs.

NAZAROFF, ALEXANDER. *Land of the Russian People.* J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia, 1944. How Russia came to be; czars, emperors, and soviets.

RANSOME, ARTHUR. *Swallows and Amazons.* J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia, 1931. An English author writes about English children, who have vacation adventures enjoying camp life.

SEREDY, KATE. *Good Master.* The Viking Press, New York, 1935. A delightful story of the people of the plains of Hungary and their customs.

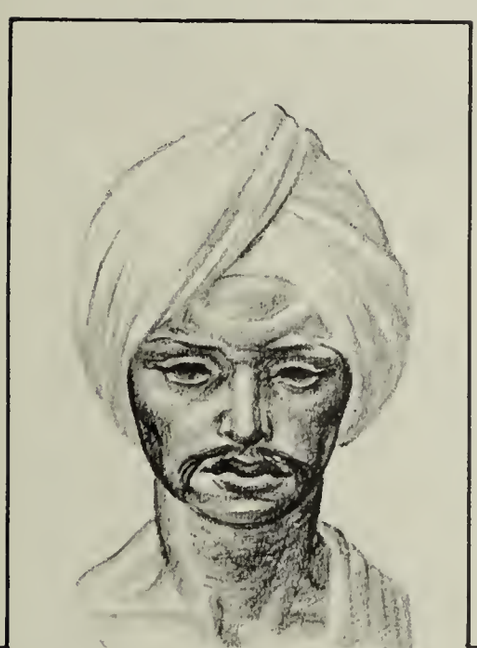
SPYRI, JOHANNA. *Heidi.* Translated by Helen B. Dole. Ginn and Company, Boston, 1927. A story that never grows old, of a little girl of Switzerland, her pet goats, and her mountain home.

WHEELER, OPAL, and DEUCHER, SYBIL. *Sebastian Bach, Boy from Thuringia.* E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., New York, 1937. The story of one of Germany's famous musicians, and some of his music.

Unit Four

Countries of Asia:

Eastern Nations Change Their Ways







14. Asia and the Eastern Way of Life: Southwest Asia, the Gateway



A Story · A Promised Land

Palestine was different from what Sarah had expected. She had thought about it ever since she was a little girl, just old enough to listen to her father read the Hebrew Bible. Palestine was the land which God had promised to the Hebrews while they were wandering through the desert with their great leader Moses. Now Sarah's father had been asked to leave California and come to Palestine. He was going to help work out some problems for the new Jewish settlements in the old Holy Land. Sarah and her mother went along, of course, for her father would be there several years, maybe always. And now that Sarah was in Palestine, everything was surprising.

First, there was the big white city of Tel Aviv, where they stayed for a few days after leaving the ship. There were long streets of big white apartment houses, all very much alike, streamlined and modern, with balconies

on every floor to catch the breezes. Sarah had seen apartment houses like them before, in some of the newer parts of Los Angeles, but never so many alike as these. They did not belong to the Holy Land as she had imagined it.

Then one day they drove outside Tel Aviv to one of the new, big farms. It was really just a village surrounded by orange groves. But it was a new kind of village, where hundreds of people lived almost like one big family. There was a large dining room for all the grown-up people. There was a school for the older boys and girls, and they had their own dining room and game rooms. There was a nursery school and another dining room for the little children. Even the babies had their very own house.

Outdoors Sarah saw old and young people at work setting out little tomato plants. The guide from the farm told her that most of these people had come from Europe, where they had lost their homes and families in the war. Some of them had escaped from Germany, others had come from countries like Poland and Rumania where Hitler's armies had killed and persecuted the Jews. They had passed a group of girls who were singing as they worked, and one of them looked up to smile and wave at Sarah.

"She looks happy," thought Sarah. "It is because she has found peace and freedom in the promised land."

Sarah and her father drove about the country visiting farms and villages. It was so much like Southern California that she was always surprised to come upon something that was completely different from what she had been used to at home. The orange groves with their shining green leaves, the desert patches, were like home to her. Then suddenly they would pass camels moving slowly along with their heavy burdens, followed by dusty, barefooted drivers.

Finally Sarah and her parents went to Jerusalem, where they stayed with the Baum family. Mr. Baum, the man who had asked her father to come and work with him, was the head of an important committee connected with the new settlements. Their daughter, Betty, was twelve, just Sarah's age, and the two girls became friends at once.

While the men were busy with their work, Mrs. Baum and Betty took Sarah and her mother about the city. Again Sarah had a queer feeling that she was living in a story where new and old were all mixed up together. Americans and Europeans in ordinary clothes went shopping side by side with storybook people in strange costumes. One day they went down into the old part of the city. They walked along the middle of narrow streets that were squeezed between the houses, streets without sidewalks. The market place was an open square, where sellers of many things squatted under little awnings. There were oranges and olives and bundles of reed matting, woven rugs and shawls, baskets and jars, grapes and grain, nuts and tobacco and sandals. They went to see the "wailing wall," a part that remained of the ancient Jerusalem which had been destroyed. Here women with their heads covered were weeping and murmuring about their sorrow, according to the custom.

But best of all were the hours when the family gathered on the flat housetop after the evening meal, to watch the stars and talk over the day. Sarah liked Mr. Baum. When she asked him questions he sat silent a moment, watching the smoke curl up from his pipe. Then he answered her thoughtfully, giving her many new things to think about.

"It seems so mixed up here," Sarah said. "Part of it is like a storybook and part of it is just like America or the places where mother and I stayed in Europe."

Mr. Baum smiled.

"That is because Palestine is a place where East and West meet and mingle," said Mr. Baum. "The West is the new and the East has been the old, the storybook land. Now a great shaking up is changing the East. In Palestine you see both ways of life."

"The clothes that lots of the people wear look just like the old pictures," said Sarah.

"Yes, but the clothes are not important, unless they mean unchanged ideas," said Mr. Baum. "But the change is coming. It came quickly in Turkey. It is coming more slowly in other countries. The veils come off, the girls go to school, and with freedom of education come other freedoms, too. That is something your father and I are working for, Sarah, freedom and education. We are working for people who prize freedom and peace more than most other people do, because they have known what it is to lose them. The Jews of Europe have suffered, suffered terribly. They have known war and slavery—that is why they want peace and liberty. But they may not find them, even here in Palestine, unless we can make a whole world free from persecution and war. That's what your father and I are doing, Sarah. Our work deals with farming and irrigation and houses, but what we are really doing is trying to help to build a peaceful world."

Looking at Asia

In the story of Palestine which you have just read you catch a glimpse of southwest Asia, the part of Asia lying near the eastern end of the Mediterranean Sea. This is indeed a place where East and West meet and mingle. It is the gateway through which we shall go to study the peoples of Asia, their problems and their changing ways. But first let's take a look at Asia as a whole.

Life is changing in the East. In the first part of this book we studied the countries of Europe and saw many changes come to these Western countries. Thinking changed, and people demanded a share in their own government. Ways of working changed, and the Western nations became industrial. Transportation changed, trade and travel moved more quickly, and the countries seemed closer together.

Now we turn to Asia and the countries of Eastern, or *Oriental*, cultures. The civilization of the East is rich and very old. Life in many parts of Asia goes on much as it did 2000 years ago. The countries of Asia do not have much machine industry. Many of them do not have much democratic government. But Western ways of trade and travel, of industry and government have been spreading into Asia, and changing the life of the people there. This change from the old to the new is taking place very rapidly today in many parts of Asia.

Why has Asia been slow to change? Part of the answer is found in the nature of the land itself. Look at the map on pages 298 and 299, and notice first of all the size of Asia. It is the largest continent of all, five times as large as Europe. It reaches from the tundra lands beyond the arctic circle almost to the equator. Then notice how little seacoast Asia has for its size. All our stories of Europe showed us the importance of the seacoast. To the seaports of the Mediterranean and the Atlantic came the products and the ideas of other countries. This is one way civilization spread. Asia is so large that some parts of it are 1500 miles from the sea. For centuries it was hard for new ideas and

goods from other countries to reach these inland places.

From the map, too, we know that there must be a wide variety of climate in so large a continent. We have already studied the vast stretch of northern Asia which belongs to the U.S.S.R. In eastern Siberia we found the coldest region on earth. We shall find one of the hottest centers in the world in the river valleys of India. Some districts receive a large amount of rain, but much of Asia, especially central Asia, is a land of little rain and many desert places. Study again the rainfall map on page 216.

Deserts and mountains divide Asia into separate regions, and hinder travel between these regions. This division by desert and mountain barrier is another thing which has caused changes to take place slowly in Asia. Locate the desert stretches on the map of Asia on the next page. Notice that most of them are plateau land, fenced off from the ocean by hills and mountains. Airplanes make a great difference to regions such as these. Travel and trade can now cross these barriers more easily and swiftly.

Look carefully at the mountains on the map of Asia. All the central part of the continent is made up of high mountain ranges and plateaus. These plateaus are tablelands of different heights. Some are almost flat on top, some are very uneven and broken by mountain ranges. They are divided from each other by higher ranges. Find the Plateau of Tibet. This is the highest plateau in the world, and is sometimes called "the roof of the world." The lofty mountains on the west of Tibet are like an uneven ridgepole of a roof. These mountains are so rough and rugged that they are called the Pamir Knot. They look something like a huge knot tying together the mountain ranges of Asia. From the Pamir Knot great ranges of mountains stretch out north, south, east, and west. In the Himalayas, extending to the southeast, are the highest peaks in the world.

Mighty mountains divide Asia into four large sections. The northern section is the great plain of Turkestan and Siberia, sloping toward the Arctic Ocean. This section, which is part of Soviet Russia, we have already studied. Do you remember the thousands of miles of steppe land, where there is not water enough for trees to grow? Now it is easy to see why so little rain falls in this steppe country. The winds from the Atlantic Ocean, far to the west, have lost their moisture long before they reach this heartland of Asia. The winds from the Pacific Ocean and the Indian Ocean drop their moisture as they rise to cross the high mountains. They carry little rain to the lands beyond.

South and east of the mountain wall lie three other sections. Each one has a different history, a different civilization, and a different religion. Religion is very important in the way of life of Asia. One reason why Asia has been slow to change is the geography of the region, the lack of seacoast, the deserts and mountains. Another reason why Asia has been slow to change is religion. As we study the peoples of Asia we shall try to understand their religious beliefs, for these have had much to do with the way the peoples live and think.

The people of a different civilization may at first seem very strange to us. They wear different clothes, and have different customs. They live and work differently, and sometimes think differently. It is important to remember that we seem as strange to them as they seem to us. It is not true that our way is always better than their way. The important thing is to understand each other. The wise thing is to learn from each other.

In Chapter I you read of the Nile Valley and the Tigris-Euphrates Valley, the two cradlelands of Western civilization. There are



EURASIA

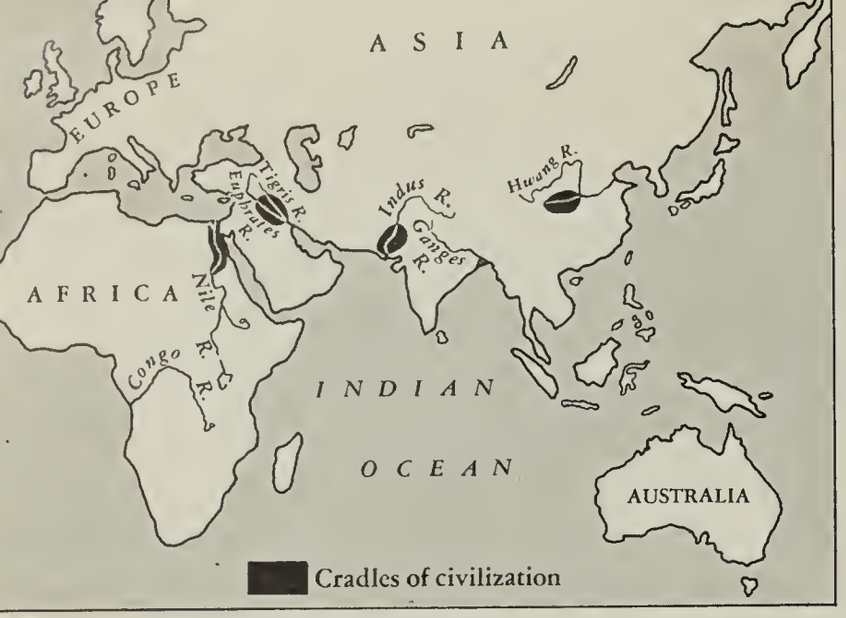
Plains
Hills
Plateaus
Mountains

Leningrad	Over 1,000,000 people
Kiev	500,000 to 1,000,000 people
Murmansk	100,000 to 500,000 people
Adana	Under 100,000 people

★Capital of a country

0 675
One inch equals 675 miles


ARCTIC OCEAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
Sea of Okhotsk
Sea of Japan
South China Sea
East China Sea
Yellow Sea
Bay of Bengal
INDIAN OCEAN
Gulf of Siam
Gulf of Mannar
Strait of Malacca
Strait of Makassar
Moro Gulf
Lena River
Amur River
Yangtze Kiang
Hwang Ho
Wei Ho
Grand Canal
Mekong River
Menam R.
Irrawaddy R.
Salween R.
Brahmaputra R.
Ganges River
Indus River
KAMCHATKA PENINSULA
KURIL ISLANDS
SAKHALIN
HOKKAIDO
HONSHU
SHIKOKU
KYUSHU
RYUKYU ISLANDS
FORMOSA
HAINAN
PHILIPPINE ISLANDS
LUZON
MINDANAO
CELEBES
MOLUCCA OR SPICE ISLANDS
BORNEO
SUMATRA
MALAY STATES
CEYLON
ANDAMAN ISLANDS
ARCTIC CIRCLE
TROPIC OF CANCER
20°
10°
90°
100°
110°
120°
80°
SOVIET REPUBLICS
Irkutsk
Lake Baikal
Ulan Bator
MONGOLIA
THE GOBI (DESERT)
INNER MONGOLIA
ALTAI MTS.
Urumchi
Kalgan
Peiping
Tientsin
Port Arthur
Dairen
SHANTUNG PENINSULA
Tsitsihar
Harbin
MANCHURIA
Kirin
Mukden
Vladivostok
KOREA
Seoul
Pusan
Hiroshima
Nagasaki
Hakodate
Tokyo
Yokohama
Nagoya
Osaka
JAPAN
East Shanghai
Nanking
Hankow
Wuchang
Hanyang
Changsha
Chungking
SHANSI
SHENSI
GREAT PLAIN
CHINA
SINKIANG
Yarkand
PLATEAU OF TIBET
TIBET
Lhasa
SZECHWAN RED BASIN
YUNNAN PLATEAU
Kunming
Burma Road
Canton
Macao
Hong Kong
Kwangchow
Manila
Hanoi
FRENCH INDO-CHINA
THAILAND (SIAM)
Bangkok
Saigon
Rangoon
Mandalay
BURMA
ASSAM
BENGAL
Calcutta
EAST PAKISTAN
Benares
NEPAL
BHUTAN
MALAYA
Singapore
Brunei
Colombo
DECCAN PLATEAU
HIMALAYA MOUNTAINS
299



Cradles of Civilization

two other cradlelands in Asia, and these also are river valleys. One is the valley of the Wei Ho and the Hwang Ho in north China. Locate this region on your map. This valley was the early home of Chinese civilization. China and its borderlands form the eastern section of Asia, separated from Siberian Russia on the north and from India on the south by very high mountains.

India is the southern section of Asia, and here we find another cradleland. It stretches across the peninsula of India, and takes in the Indus River Valley on the west and the valley of the Ganges River on the east. Look on your map for this great lowland valley. It was the cradle of the Indian, or Hindu, civilization.

The remaining section is the southwest, and here we shall begin our study of Asia. This section contains the cradleland of Mesopotamia, in the Tigris-Euphrates Valley, and not far away is the cradleland of Egypt in the valley of the Nile River. Locate once more these two cradlelands. The map on this page shows the position of the four known cradles of civilization.

Southwest Asia is the land of the mosque. The religion of Mohammed spread over all this region. Today most of the people of these countries are Moslems. There are a number of countries in this section of Asia. Locate them on the map on page 298. Every town has its *mosque*, or place of worship. There are no priests or altars in Moslem worship. Usually the mosque has a dome, and always one or more *minarets*. A minaret is a tall slender tower, with a high balcony. Here, five times each day, a man called a *muezzin* stands to call the people to prayer.

One thing about some of these Moslem countries which will seem strange to us is the position of women. The wives and daughters of Mohammedan men have their own separate quarters in the home, and do not meet or talk with men outside their own family. They seldom appear in public, and when they do they wear veils. This custom is called the *seclusion* of women.

Arab Asia

The southern part of southwest Asia is called Arab Asia. This name is often given to the great peninsula of Arabia and the Fertile Crescent north of it. There are several separate countries in Arab Asia: Saudi Arabia, Palestine, Jordan, Syria, Lebanon, Yemen, Oman, and Iraq. The people in these countries are mostly Arabs or Arabic-speaking people. Looking at our map we may feel that we know these countries already, for we learned much about them in our story of earlier times. We know that they lie at the crossroads of East and West, on the great routes of travel and trade between Europe, Asia, and Africa. The Isthmus of Suez joins Eurasia to Africa. The Suez Canal, cutting across the isthmus,

joins the Mediterranean with the Red Sea, and forms a great waterway from the Atlantic Ocean to the Indian Ocean and the Pacific.

Arab armies conquered much of what is now Arab Asia and spread the Moslem religion. But the Arab rulers were not strong enough to hold the leadership of their empire. Persian nobles came to power, and Baghdad, on the Tigris River, became the capital of the Moslem empire. Later on the Turks seized the power, and ruled all these lands from Constantinople. When the Turks were defeated in the First World War, these countries became independent again. Let us take a brief look at each one.

Arabia is the homeland of the Arabs. They themselves call it the Isle of the Arabs. Look at the map and see if you can tell why. The larger part of the Arabian peninsula, or Arabia, belongs to the kingdom of Saudi Arabia, whose king rules with absolute power. The small countries of Yemen and Oman are also kingdoms.

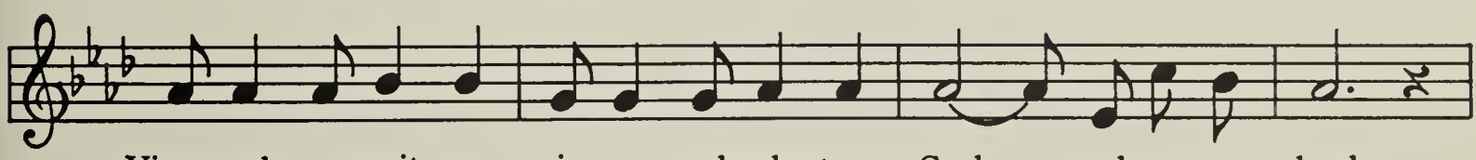
Most of Arabia is a high, barren plateau sloping toward the Persian Gulf. Part of the plateau is deep shifting sand, where it is almost impossible to travel. Other wide stretches are steppe-desert, where a little coarse grass grows in the hollows. Across these stretches move camel caravans, carrying cargo and trav-

Arabs on the March

Christine Turner Curtis — Algerian Folk Tune



1. Gal-lop, my charg-er, gal-lop, my beau-ty, Speed a-cross the sand!
2. Sun-light be-hind us, star-light be-fore us, Bound a-cross the plain;



Vine-yards a-wait us, riv-ers and palm trees, Cool · and grass-y land.
Skim-ming the sand dunes, leap-ing the hol-lows, Fare · with stream-ing mane.



On through des-ert blaz-ing with heat, On · to wa-ter, spar-kling and sweet!
On through mid-night black-er than jet, On to mosque and tall min-a-ret!



On · through des-ert blaz-ing with heat, On · to wa-ter, spar-kling and sweet!
On · through mid-night black-er than jet, On · to mosque and tall min-a-ret!



A Bedouin camp in Arabia

elers from Palestine, Syria, and Iraq to Egypt or the ports of the Red Sea. In the center of the plateau, surrounded by these dreary deserts, are large *oases*. An oasis is a place where the scarce rainfall sinks through the sand and gathers in rock basins or underground streams. Date palms send their roots deep to find this moisture. Their swaying green branches make a welcome shade from the blazing heat of the desert sun. Wells provide water for people to drink and to use for irrigating their gardens. At these oases are located the larger towns, and many small villages, where the settled Arabs live.

Outside these little towns is a different life —the life of the Arab nomads of the deserts. These wandering groups are called Bedouins. They live not only in the peninsula of Arabia, but in the desert borders and barren valleys of Syria, Palestine, and Iraq. They raise camels and donkeys and flocks of sheep and black goats. When these Bedouins plant crops, they pitch their long, black tents in the fields, and stay until the grain is harvested. They live simply, on bread, dates, milk, and sometimes a little goat meat.

At the southern tip of the peninsula, near the Gulf of Aden, is a fertile spot which receives more rain than the rest of the peninsula. Fine coffee is grown here. Coffee is the main drink of the Arabs. Indeed, the word coffee comes from an Arab word. Coffee is one of Arabia's exports. Others are wool and hides from nomad flocks, and gums from desert plants.

Swift changes are on the way in Arabia. Under the sun-baked sands of the Arabian Peninsula is petroleum. American businessmen and engineers are at work with American machinery producing and refining this oil. Bahrein Island, a tiny island close to shore in the Persian Gulf, is a busy oil-refining center,

and is rapidly becoming a modern city and shipping port.

Oil may open the door to a new life for the people of the Arab countries. Several foreign companies have agreements with the governments of certain of the Arab countries to produce and sell their oil. They agree to return to the governments of those countries a *royalty*, a fixed amount of the money that is made. American companies have a large share in these oil interests. The oil royalties should make possible great improvements in the desert countries. The Arabs will be able to construct great irrigation systems to bring water to their thirsty land.

Modern transportation is also changing life in Arab countries. Motor trucks and jeeps travel the desert roads much faster than the camel can go, and airplanes hop easily over stretches of shifting sand. But it will be a long while before Arabians can do without the patient camel, which can travel far with little water and food and no engine trouble.



One of Bahrein's great oil refineries

Men of Saudi Arabia enjoy their coffee





Camel caravans are seen in the modern city of Tel Aviv

Palestine today is an interesting country. It is about the size of the state of Vermont. Throughout the year it is visited by pilgrims —Christian, Jewish, and Mohammedan. Jews, of course, have always thought of Palestine as their homeland. But the Arabs have lived in it for 700 years. Where the Jewish Temple once stood in Jerusalem the Moslems built a great mosque. Next to Mecca and Medina, Jerusalem is honored as a holy city of the Arabs.

After the First World War, Palestine was taken away from Turkey and put under a British *mandate.* A mandate means an order or command. Palestine was made a separate state, and Great Britain was "commanded" by the League of Nations to govern it for the good of its people, until it was able to govern itself. The League of Nations was organized after the First World War to prevent future wars. It was made up of many different nations working together to try to solve problems that might lead to war.

Many Jews living in different countries all over the world have wanted to go to Palestine and make a Jewish nation there again. Between the two world wars many Jews settled in Palestine. Jewish immigration was opposed by many of the Arabs, who had lived in Palestine for centuries and considered it their home.

Instead of moving into the old cities, the Jews have built a new city called Tel Aviv, the city of big white apartment buildings which surprised Sarah. They are also planting new colonies out in the country, like the one that

Sarah visited. Under this plan more people can be given shelter and work than if they all tried to find separate homes. There is much fertile land which is not yet cultivated. With modern farm machinery surprising things are being done. But it is still far from being a peaceful homeland. The Jews have set up a state of Israel within Palestine and the Republic of Israel is now a separate state. Trouble with the Arabs continues and the future of Palestine remains uncertain.

Palestine is a pleasant land in which to live. The climate is much like that of southern California, with warm summers and mild winters with some rain. However, much of Palestine is dry, and in many sections crops cannot be grown unless the land is irrigated. A fertile plain slopes back from the Mediterranean Sea, with fields of wheat and barley, and of *durra*, another grain that is used for food. There are almond orchards, orange groves, vineyards, and pastures. The land rises eastward to the hill country, dotted with the gray-green of olive trees. Here we find Jerusalem and other towns mentioned in the Bible.

East of this range of hills lies the deep, narrow Jordan Valley. The Jordan River flows from the Sea of Galilee on the north to the Dead Sea in the south. The Dead Sea is below sea level, and its waters are very salty —four or five times as salty as the ocean. Potash and other useful chemicals are obtained by pumping the water from this sea into broad flat pans and allowing it to evaporate.

On each side of the Jordan is desert land, which would be fertile soil if it could be irrigated. Plans have been made for irrigating this region and some work has been started. Beyond the Jordan to the east is the plateau country of Trans-Jordan, which is separate from Palestine, and is ruled by a king.

Palestine is largely agricultural and has little manufacturing. The industries are mostly those which have to do with products of vineyard or olive grove, such as the making of wine, olive oil, and soap. Palestine exports soap, wine, watermelons, almonds, oranges, and skins from desert flocks. Oranges are the most important export, and if the new groves that are being planted produce well, more and more oranges will be shipped to the countries of Europe. Find the important old seaport of

This collective settlement is reclaiming land from the desert



Jaffa on your map, and near it the new city of Tel Aviv, which is already twice as large as Jaffa. Haifa, at the north, almost on the Syrian border, is being made into another great port. It lies at the head of the long pipe line from the oil wells of Iraq.

Syria and Lebanon, to the north, are much alike. Study these two countries on the map on page 298. Syria is much the larger, but Lebanon is more densely populated. After the First World War, Syria and Lebanon were made French mandates, but now they are independent republics. Syria, like Palestine, has a strip of coast along the Mediterranean Sea, but it is shorter than that of Palestine. Lebanon is a narrow country, bordering the sea, with a Mediterranean climate throughout. On the Mediterranean coast of Lebanon and Syria, in ancient times, stood the cities of the Phoenicians. In Lebanon and the coastal region of Syria, grain, vegetables, and fruits are grown. Lebanon is an important exporter of oranges. Beirut, the capital of Lebanon, is the chief port for both Lebanon and Syria.

In Syria, cotton is grown near the northern boundary, and a little farther south tobacco is raised and exported. There are mulberry trees, too, which always means that silk is produced. East of the coastal belt in Syria and running the entire length of the country is a semiarid strip which is largely used as pasture land for sheep. Most of the remainder of Syria is desert land where wandering tribes of Bedouins live.

The old walled city of Aleppo in northern Syria has long been the meeting-place for caravan routes. Camels and donkeys with their burdens wind through the narrow streets. Bright sunshine blazes down on flat-topped houses, and from the minarets of mosques sounds the call to prayer. The majority of the people of Syria are Moslems.

This fortified archway in Aleppo has stood for thousands of years





Farmers near Baghdad wash their radishes in an irrigation ditch

On the eastern slopes of the Lebanon Mountains stands the old city of Damascus, the capital and the largest city of Syria. The plain below Damascus is irrigated with water from a river which flows from the mountains. This irrigated land is known as the Plain of Damascus. It is green with fields and gardens. Grain and cotton are raised, as well as much fruit, especially apricots and grapes.

Damascus has long been an Arab trading center. The trade long ago was carried by camel caravans. Now it is carried by railroads which connect Damascus and Beirut and northern Syria.

Eastern Syria is plateau land through which the Euphrates has cut a wide valley. Through the desert runs the boundary between Syria and Iraq. The desert fringes of Syria, Iraq, and Saudi Arabia interlace, and the nomad shepherds wander over them at will.

Iraq, land of the two rivers, is the old country of Mesopotamia. Let's take a look at this land from which Palestine's port of Haifa receives oil through a pipe line. On the west and southwest lies Iraq's fringe of desert. East of this desert waste are the broad valleys of the Euphrates and Tigris rivers. The Euphrates is a slow river, too shallow and winding for ships. The Tigris is swifter and deeper, and can be used for transportation from above Baghdad, the capital, down to the place where the two rivers meet. Below this, however, the river widens out and becomes too shallow for boats. The northern and eastern borders of Iraq are very rugged and mountainous.

The cultivated area of Iraq has two different parts. Just below the mountains the great river valley spreads out in a high treeless plain, with low scattered hills, called Upper Iraq. Rainfall is scarce in Iraq, and comes mostly in winter. In the higher part of the plain the people raise barley and an excellent hard red wheat. Along the rivers and the smaller streams the land can be irrigated. Here tobacco is an important crop, and fruit trees grow on the hillsides. Cotton also is raised.



Baghdad's famous pontoon bridge over the Tigris

Farther south the rivers draw close together and then curve apart. Here the plain becomes low and flat, even lower than the beds of the rivers. In May or June, at the end of the rainy season, the rivers overflow. The waters spread a fine rich loam over the land, and collect in swampy places. On the slopes from the river channels to the swamps are green rice fields, and a large amount of rice is exported.

Most important of all growing things in Iraq is the date palm. Date groves are numerous. They are scattered through the valley. They fringe the rivers and spread over the low swampy lands toward the Persian Gulf. The date palm means both food and shelter.

The fruit grows in great clusters and dries on the tree to a rich golden brown. In the center of each date is a hard seed. Dates are an important food for the people, and the seeds are ground to make food for cattle and sheep. Both syrup and vinegar are made from dates. In addition to the dates, the people use as food the bud that grows at the end of the stem. It is a little like an almond but much larger, and it is looked upon as a special treat.

The fronds and leaves of the tree are woven into matting, which is used in building huts. A great many of the people in Iraq live in date-mat houses. Fiber from the outer trunk makes strong rope. The light trunks are used in building. Certainly the people of Iraq would not know how to get along without the date palm.

Only certain varieties of dates, carefully packed in wooden boxes, are exported. More than three fourths of the world's dates come from Iraq. They are shipped from Basra, the seaport on the Persian Gulf. Besides rice and dates, Iraq exports wool, hides and skins, and oil.

Baghdad is the capital of Iraq and the largest city. The old part of the city on the west bank of the Tigris is linked to the new Baghdad on the east bank by a famous *pontoon* bridge, that is, a bridge supported on boats. This sprawling, mud-colored city was once the splendid capital of the Moslem world, and it is still the meeting place of caravan routes. Silks and woolens and cottons are woven in Baghdad, and rugs and pottery are made there.

On the wide, flat plain that extends around Baghdad, huge mounds can be seen. Beneath the dust of these mounds are the crumbled ruins of old cities of the past. Dim lines and ridges in the sand show where ancient irrigating canals led the river water to the fields. This land of Iraq, we must remember, was one of the cradles of civilization. These dim markings, drifted with dust, have wonderful stories to tell to those who are skilled in reading them.

Surely there is a future, as well as a past, for this fertile country. Plans have been discussed for great irrigation projects, which would make Iraq once more a land of gardens. These projects take money, and Iraq is a poor country. But Iraq has oil which is now being produced in the region around Mosul, in the north. It is from this region that pipe lines run westward to the Palestine port of Haifa and to Tripoli in Lebanon. Perhaps oil will solve the problem of money and bring a new day to ancient Iraq.

Asia Minor, the Land of Turkey

The peninsula of Asia Minor points toward Europe like a fat finger. It almost touches the Balkan Peninsula. Between are two narrow straits, the Bosporus and the Dardanelles, and the little body of water known as the Sea of Marmara. This finger of land between Europe and Asia is today the country of Turkey. Study it on the map on page 298. Turkey lies partly in each continent. In Asia it covers Asia Minor from the Armenian Mountains westward, between the Black Sea and the eastern Mediterranean. In Europe, Turkey reaches across the narrow straits and takes in the famous city of Constantinople, the old capital of the Eastern Roman Empire. The modern name of Constantinople is Istanbul.

Istanbul is a busy and beautiful port city and the largest city of Turkey. But Istanbul is more than this: it is a world city, with merchants and travelers from every country. It has been a world city for so long that in some ways it is not like the rest of Turkey. The real Turkey we find in Asia Minor.

The peninsula of Asia Minor has a narrow plain, broken by mountains, extending around its coast. In these coastal valleys are the fertile regions of Turkey, the regions that get the summer rains. In the center of the peninsula is the Anatolian Plateau, cupped in a rim of mountains. In summer this plateau is a hot, dry land; and the winters are bitter cold.

The old Turkey. To this rough bleak little land Turkish tribes came from the plains of Turkestan. You may find this region on the map in the southern part of the U.S.S.R. These Turks were a fierce warrior people, who had accepted the Moslem religion. We have already learned that they captured Constantinople and put an end to the Eastern Roman Empire in 1453. During the next hundred years, they conquered the peoples on all sides of them. The Turkish Empire stretched all the way from Egypt around the eastern end of the Mediterranean Sea, through Asia Minor into Europe, through Greece and the Balkan countries as far as Budapest, the capital of Hungary.



The city of Istanbul is cut in two by its long, narrow harbor

But these warrior Turks were not good peacetime rulers. In over three hundred years the lands they held made scarcely any progress. The people they had conquered continued to revolt, and the power of the Turkish rulers, who were called *sultans*, grew less and less. After the First World War only Asia Minor and Constantinople remained to the Turkish Empire.

The new Turkey. At this time a new leader, Mustafa Kemal, arose in Turkey. In 1923, Turkey was made a republic, and Mustafa Kemal was elected president. The capital was moved from Istanbul to the old city of Angora, now called Ankara, on the Anatolian Plateau. Kemal thought Turkey should become a modern nation, and he began to make changes in the Turkish way of life.

He began with education. In old Turkey the schools were at the mosques, and only boys could go to school. Now there are free public schools, which both boys and girls must attend until they are sixteen years old. Grown-up people, also, are urged to attend schools and learn to read and write.

In old Turkey, women lived closely guarded lives within their own homes. When they appeared in public they wore black clothes and heavy veils. This, too, has been changed. The veils are gone, and the girls of Turkey dress in bright colors just as European and American girls do. They may go to school and college, and many women have become doctors or lawyers or have gone into business. The men, too, now wear European clothes, and have stopped wearing the old Turkish cap, the fez. In the city of Ankara stands a statue of Mustafa Kemal, "Father of the Turks." But better than statues to remind the Turks of their leader are the schools, the irrigation systems, the highways, the railroads, and the airfields of changing Turkey.

The Turkish people and their land. The greater part of the people of Turkey live on the narrow coast strip of agricultural land. Locate the towns that are mentioned on the map on page 298. An important crop is tobacco. The curving coast of the Black Sea, because it has sufficient rainfall, is the best region in Turkey for tobacco-growing. Some of the finest tobacco in the world is grown here and shipped to other countries from the seaports of Bafra and Samsun. Along the Sea of Marmara is a sunny rolling country called the plain of Bursa. This is the best olive-growing region of Asia Minor. Olives and olive oil form one of Turkey's chief foods.

The seaport of Smyrna, sometimes called Izmir, lies in the richest and most important farming region of Turkey. Across the plain stretch fields of wheat and barley, beans, chick peas, and sugar beets. There are groves of nut trees, too, and over the gently rising hills thousands of acres of poppies bloom from April to June. From the juice of the poppy the drug opium is made. A great deal of opium is exported.

Delicious figs and raisin grapes grow near Smyrna. In the valley of the Meander River fig orchards stretch from the banks of the river up the hillsides. The figs are thin-skinned, sweet as honey, and fragrant. They are allowed to dry on the tree. Then they are laid on strips of canvas to dry still more. Finally, they are carried in horsehair sacks to the packing houses. Here women carefully sort and grade them and men and boys, who constantly dip their hands into salt water, pack the fruit in trays for shipping.

Many kinds of grapes grow in the vineyards around Smyrna. The famous raisin grapes are the sultanas, a small yellow grape which is harvested in August. The ripe clusters are dipped into a mixture of lye and olive oil, and

Dried grapes are sorted before packing by skillful Turkish women





A Turkish shepherd tends his flocks of sheep and goats

spread on sheets of cardboard to dry. At one time they were pressed by foot and packed by hand, but now they are pressed and packed by machine. Thousands of tons of figs and raisins are exported every year.

Along the southern coast the summers are hot, and here are located the cotton fields of Turkey. The town of Adana, the center of the cotton trade, has a large mill where cotton thread is spun.

The Anatolian Plateau has a dry climate. Here we find most of the people busy with stock raising. In the richer pastures near the streams cattle graze, and where plowing is done oxen are used to draw the plows. The chief wealth of the plateau, however, is in sheep and goats.

The flocks are mixed, sheep and goats together. They move along with the wind, two or three miles an hour, feeding on the steppe grass. The shepherd follows behind. He wears a broad-shouldered square cloak of stiff skin to protect him from the weather. In winter he collects his animals within a rough mud wall. In a hollow in the wall is a little hut for the shepherd. He lets his flocks out only when the weather permits them to find food.

The flocks provide the main food for the people of the plateau. They boil the meat with rice to make a Turkish dish called *pilaf*. From the milk they make a dish called *yogurt*. They heat the milk and pour it into small bowls, and add a spoonful of old yogurt to make it sour. It forms a smooth, solid kind of junket, which is said to be very healthful.

The wool of the sheep is used for clothing and carpets. Carpet-making is the most important craft of Turkey. The Angora goats

take their name from the capital city. The long, silky hair of these goats is called mohair. It is clipped off, baled, and sent to Istanbul to be sold for making a fine, soft cloth called plush.

Turkey's mountains are rich in resources. The pine and fir forests yield timber, charcoal, and gallnuts from which ink and dyes are made. The walnut and chestnut trees provide hardwoods which can be used for fine furniture. Turkey now produces nearly one fourth of the world's chrome, and the country has large deposits of coal, copper, gold, silver, lead, zinc, and other minerals. But Turkey needs more highways and railroads to bring these products out of the mountains. More modern machinery is needed, not only for mines, but also for farms. Some farming machinery has already been brought to the country, but in most of Turkey old methods are still in use.

The Plateau of Iran

The two remaining countries of southwest Asia lie on the high mountainous plateau of Iran. These countries are Iran and Afghanistan. Locate this plateau on your map on page 298. The western part, more than half the plateau, is occupied by the Kingdom of Iran, or Persia. There was a time when the rulers of Persia became so strong that they conquered many countries. They ruled an empire that reached from Egypt across the lands of Southwest Asia to Greece. Do you remember reading about the Persian Xerxes, who came with his fleet and army and tried to conquer Greece, only to lose his fleet at Salamis? That was nearly 500 years before the birth of Christ. Less than 200 years later, Alexander the Great marched eastward and conquered Persia. If you have forgotten this story, turn back to Chapter 2 and read it again.

Most of the Kingdom of Iran is dry and mountainous. Rugged mountain ranges wall it away from the river valleys of Iraq on the west. On the south are the Persian Gulf and the Gulf of Oman. The mountains in the south extend almost to the shore, and the narrow strip of coast land is dry and barren. On the north mountains slope to the Caspian seacoast, which is the most fertile and beautiful part of Iran. The center of Iran is a high plain, not flat, but broken up by mountains and rimmed by high ranges. We have been studying other plateaus, so we are not surprised to learn that this is arid country, hot and dry in summer and bitter cold in winter, where nothing grows without irrigation.

Most of the moisture comes in winter, usually as snow in the mountains. In the spring, when the snow melts, streams flow from the mountains into the valleys. The streams are not large, and they do not flow far before they dry up in the hot bright summer sun or sink into the thirsty soil and disappear. For this reason the villages cluster along the foothills where there is water.

The farmers of Iran raise wheat, barley, rice, and other grains. They work in village groups, with the village headmen as directors. Often they get their water by digging a well. When they find water they connect the well with canals, through which the water flows to the lower levels to irrigate the fields. There are also shepherd tribes, with flocks of sheep and goats. They go up to the mountain pastures in summer, and back to the valley when cold weather comes. The shepherds also raise pack animals—horses, mules, camels, and donkeys—because Iran has almost no railroads and few roads good enough for motor trucks.



A camel caravan in the streets of Tehran

On top of a mosque in Tehran



Along the Caspian Sea the winter rainfall is heavier. Where the mountains slope northward to this coast lies the fertile section of Iran. Wheat and tobacco grow here, and thousands of acres of rice. Orchards bear apples, peaches, plums, and pears. These fruits, which we like so well and which grow in the United States also, came first of all from Persia long ago. Groves of mulberry trees provide food for silkworms, and the silk industry is important.

The most important craft in Iran is carpet-weaving. Persian carpets are world-famous. The men buy the wool and get it dyed, and women and children do much of the weaving. The sheep of Iran produce a fine wool, excellent for carpets, and for centuries the Persians made their own dyes from native plants. Now some chemical dyes from Europe are used, because they are cheaper.

Iran has one modern industry, the production of oil. Oil production is under the control of a British company, assisted by the British government; and Iran is paid a royalty. Oil is now the most important export of the country, and carpets come next. Other exports are rice, fruits, opium, cotton, wool, silk, and skins.

Locate Tehran, the capital of Iran. Here the Shah has his palace, and here are the government buildings where the Parliament, or assembly, meets. Visitors to Tehran may see the golden throne, a chair covered with gold and ornamented with gems. Was it a chair like this which was carried with the Persian army all the way to Greece so that Xerxes might sit upon it to behold the battle of his fleet with the fleet of Athens? That was more than 2000 years ago. Today Iran looks to the future.

The future of Iran depends on irrigation, transportation, and oil. There is land which might be made to grow crops if irrigation sys-

tems were built. Iran already has some railroads and some airplane routes, but more railroad lines and better motor roads are needed. And Iran also needs machinery and engineering skill. Possibly the oil royalties will provide the means for these improvements, and help to bring new developments to Iran.

Afghanistan, to the east, is a land of mountains. It lies on top of the rugged mountain wall between the plain of Soviet Turkestan on the north and the fertile Indus Valley to the east. Many of the peaks are more than 18,000 feet high. The climate is dry and sunny, very hot in summer and very cold in winter. In the lowest valleys the winters are milder, and here grow date palms, pomegranates, and sugar cane.

Afghanistan is perhaps the least modern of all the countries of Asia. It was called, for a long time, the hermit nation, because it kept its doors closed to the world. Much of the land is desert, inhabited only by nomad shepherd tribes. In the wilder parts of the mountain areas are many different races, each with its own customs, fiercely independent. The governors of these different areas are under the king of Afghanistan.

Locate the capital city of Kabul on your map. It lies on the Kabul River, and guards the mountain passes that lead to the southeast and to the northwest. This region around Kabul is more than 5000 feet above the sea. It is the richest agricultural district in Afghanistan, and most of the people live there. Several varieties of fruit are grown near Kabul. Like so many of the cities of Asia, Kabul has a very old part which was once a walled town, and a new part which has grown up around it. Most of the houses are built of mud and crude bricks and have flat roofs. Each roof is built so that the owner can collect the precious rainfall for his own use.

A street in an Afghan village



Life is very simple. Riza, an Afghan boy, lives in one of these mud-and-brick houses. There is no furniture in his house but a prayer rug. The house is divided, with separate rooms for the men and the women. In the chill nights of winter Riza wraps himself in a thick rug or blanket. His friend is the son of a richer man than Riza's father, and he sleeps in winter on a low table over a charcoal fire. Riza and his family eat rice, fruit, and thin flat cakes of wheat or barley, and sometimes they have some well-cooked beef or mutton. Grapes and raisins grow in the vineyards, but the Afghans make no wine. Drinks which contain alcohol are forbidden by the Moslem religion.

Riza is proud of his father, who is strongly built and walks proudly. His trousers are baggy, and he wears his shirt outside them; he also wears a vest, a sash or girdle, and shoes with turned-up toes. On his head he wears a low fez cap, or a turban, made by winding a long piece of cloth around the head. Often he leaves the end of the turban loose and uses it to cover his nose when dust is thick. It seems that there is always thick dust in summer and mud in winter.

Riza's mother wears loose trousers, and over them a mantle with long sleeves. She wears stockings and sandals, and a veil over her hair. When she goes out in public she pulls over her head a sacklike garment, white or black or blue, reaching clear down to her ankles. It has a little lace-covered window through which she can look out without being seen.

Agriculture is carried on by very old methods. Where fields can be irrigated by wells and canals, two crops a year are grown. Wheat and barley and peas grow in the winter, millet and maize and some rice in the summer. But the chief wealth is in the flocks of fat-tailed sheep, which give meat and fat for food, and wool and skins for clothing.

The main transportation is by camel and donkey caravans. Here and there along the roads is a walled *caravanserai*, a kind of inn, where travelers may stay the night and obtain food. In summer, bullock carts are used, and some of the roads are good enough for cars. There are airfields now, and there is some airplane service in and out of the country.

Trade is carried on with India and the U.S.S.R. Sheepskins, wood, fruit, and vegetables are exported from Afghanistan in exchange for cotton cloth, dyes, hardware, and manufactured articles.

Afghanistan has wealth hidden in its mountains, copper and tin, silver and gold, and rubies and blue lapis lazuli. In the bazaars of Kabul you may buy beautiful metalwork and jewelry. Not even the rulers of Afghanistan know just what metals or minerals are in their land, or where they may be found. Only a few years ago the government granted permission to American geologists to make a study of the minerals and metals of the country and to locate the oil regions. Their work was interrupted by the Second World War, and so, as yet, little is known about the wealth of Afghanistan. This is another country with an unknown future.

Study Questions

1. How did the geography of Asia help to prevent change?
2. Into what four large sections do mountains divide Asia?
3. Are the countries of southwest Asia chiefly agricultural or industrial?
4. What is the religion of most of the people in southwest Asia?
5. What is the greatest wealth of Arabia, Iraq, and Iran, and how will it help solve the problems of those countries?
6. What three groups of people call Palestine their holy land, and why?

7. What kind of agriculture and industry do we find in Palestine?

8. Why is the date palm important to Iraq?

9. Where are the fertile lands of Turkey, and what important crops are raised?

10. Who was Mustafa Kemal, and what did he do for Turkey?

11. What is the most important handicraft of Iran?

12. How is Afghanistan like Iran, and how is it different?

From the Old to the New

1. What changes are taking place in the countries of southwest Asia?

2. What problems will each of these changes bring?

3. Which of these countries is changing most rapidly?

4. Which has been slowest to change?

5. Does the seclusion of women hinder the progress of a country? Why do you think it does or does not?

Cities and Countries

Copy the numbered list of countries in your notebook, and after each country write the names of one to three important cities located in that country.

1. Saudi Arabia
2. Turkey
3. Afghanistan
4. Palestine
5. Iran
6. Syria
7. Iraq
8. Lebanon

Cities: Beirut, Kabul, Mecca, Istanbul, Haifa, Tehran, Jaffa, Baghdad, Jerusalem, Ankara, Smyrna, Damascus, Tel Aviv.

Interesting Things to Do

1. Pretend that your class is a group of leaders of an undeveloped country, eager to make it modern. Below is a list of things which help a people to improve their way of living. Study this list carefully and have a discussion to decide which you would provide first, which second, and so on, in the order of their importance and value. Perhaps you will have to decide which of the countries you are governing. How would the order depend on the country?

highways
schools
electric power
irrigation systems
railroads
newspapers
airfields
farming machinery
factory machinery
democratic government

2. Make a map of southwest Asia on a large table, and place on it objects to show the products of each region or the condition of the land. Make deserts by painting with glue and scattering with sand. Suggest mountains by piles of rock. Think of ways to show the metals and minerals in the mountains, to show the industries or handicrafts.

3. Have a screen program, using slides of the country, the people's life, and recent changes in the nations of southwest Asia. You may want to invite guests to share these pictures and perhaps serve refreshments of fruits and nuts such as grow in these countries.

4. Appoint some members of the class to gather more material and report to the class about these interesting subjects:

a. Uses of the date palm in Iraq.

b. Processing figs and raisins for export in Turkey.

c. Wool-dyeing and carpet-making in Iran.

15. India: Its People and Its Problems



A Story · The Young Must March Ahead

Varga was preparing her brother's dinner with special care. She heaped beans on the square metal tray. Beside the heap she placed three thin, dry pancakes of wheat. Then she added another, one of her own.

"Rama needs it more than I do," thought Varga. "He works so hard."

Besides, Varga wanted Rama to feel comfortable today. She wanted to talk to him, and this was the best time to do it, out in the field by themselves. She put large leaves over the food, and held them in place with her thumbs on the edge of the tray.

"Good-bye, Mother," she said.

Her mother was sitting on the earth floor at her spinning wheel. She said nothing, but looked up at Varga with a faint smile. She was always busy like this, and always silent. Rama was the only person Varga could really talk to.

With her tray Varga made her way through the village. The street between the mud huts with their thatched roofs was narrow and dirty. Garbage lay in the ditches beside the

houses. But Varga was used to it and did not notice. She passed the shops of the village craftsmen. They were members of the servant caste, a caste lower than the farmers. But some of them were quite well-to-do. There was the silversmith, who had made Varga's bracelets, and the carpenter, who had made her household chest and Rama's plow. He had a better house than their own.

Golden sunshine poured warmly down over the fields. Here and there she could see a moving team of oxen and the bobbing turban of a farmer following his plow. Beyond the plowed earth moved a little dot. It was the bus which ran from village to village all the way to the great city where her brother Sindu lived. Sindu was older than Rama. As soon as Rama was big enough to help his father plow, Sindu had gone to the city. He could earn money there in a factory. Sindu was the son of a farmer, and his parents had not wanted him to go away to do strange work. It broke the rules of the caste. But Sindu liked the city. Then later their father had died from the bite of a snake, and now there was only Rama to plow.

It was a long walk to the field where Rama was at work. For their fields were scattered, and some were far from the village where they lived. When Rama's grandfather had died, his land had been divided among his three sons. There was land in different places even then, some poor dry land, some good land near the river. When Rama's father and his brothers divided it, each took some of each kind of land, and that was why the fields were so widely scattered. It was the same way with all the farms around the village.

Rama saw his sister coming, and stopped his plow beneath a tree. He was glad to rest and eat. Varga sat down beside him in the shade.

"Brother, I want to talk to you," she said. "I have been thinking about you, Rama. And I've been thinking about all the things I learned in school last year, from maps and pictures, about India and about other countries too. You know the things I mean. You were at school in the town, too, Rama, and I know that Father would not have let me go to school if it hadn't been for you."

Varga stopped. There was so much to say, it was hard to find words for it all. Rama nodded.

"There is so much to learn," Varga continued. "And now I know why you want to go to school at the government place. I wish you could go. But there is nobody else to plow. How can you do it, Rama?"

Slowly, in silence, Rama finished his wheat cake. His eyes looked far away across the plowed land. Then he began to talk.

"For two years I have been thinking, Varga. I wanted to go to school to learn new ways to till the land. But Father said the new ways were not for us. How could we use cow dung for fertilizer? What would we burn then to cook our food? How could we buy fertilizer for the fields? Even now we owe the moneylender a lot of money. Plow and work, Father said, and pray that the monsoon brings much rain. That was the only way he knew. Now you are only twelve, Varga, and you are a girl, but it is good that you are thinking. I'm going to tell you what I want to do. You can help me."

Rama put aside the empty tray, and clasped his hands around his knee.

"When the plowing is done and the wheat is planted," he said, "I want to take the bus to the town of Kirhat. They have a government station there, and a model farm. On the day I took the yarn to market I went and talked to them, at the farm. I told them I wanted to come and work for them until I learned the new ways of farming."



"But what about our own farm work?" asked Varga.

"Krinath, our neighbor, will do it," said Rama. "He is kind, and his son helps him. I have talked to them. They will bring their bullock team and take care of our fields as well as their own. They will take part of our crop as pay. Sindu likes the city. He does not want to be a farmer, but he will send rupees to take care of you and Mother. But you will need to help, too, Varga. Your spinning will bring more rupees."

Varga clasped her hands. "Rama," she cried, "how wonderful! But," and her face fell, "how lonely it will be without you!"

"It will not be for long, perhaps," said Rama. "But I haven't told you the best yet. When I have learned enough to begin, we can try to have a co-operative group right here in the village. Krinath and his son have promised. We will persuade others. In a co-operative we can put our land together and use the best bullock teams. We would borrow money from the government, not from the moneylender. We could try new fertilizers. Perhaps some day we could have a tractor, a machine to do the plowing. Our people in India are poor, Varga, but they do not need to be poor. Our land will give back richly to those who know how to care for it."

"Does Mother know of this plan?" asked Varga.

"No," said Rama. "We must tell her tonight. At first she may not understand. She is afraid of new ways. But the young must march ahead, Varga. We must not fear to try. Only by courage can we solve the problems of India."

Varga rose to her feet. She lifted her head proudly.

"Mother never says much, Rama, but she has courage. She and I will spin, and our spinning wheels will sing a new song of hope. We will make her glad to be part of the new country that is coming out of the old India."

Now we are moving eastward in our study of Asia. The lands of India, China, and Japan are often called the Orient, meaning the "rising sun," or the East. In this story of Rama and Varga we have a little glimpse of the people of India. Most of them live in villages or on farms. One of their big problems is the problem of the land, of agriculture. As we go on we shall find out more about this and other problems of India.

First, let us look at the country itself. Turn back to the map of Asia on page 298. This shows the size of India and its location in Asia. How would you describe it? India is as large as all Europe west of Russia. We think of India as all one country, because the great mountain wall of Asia shuts India off by itself. But India is really so large that it is sometimes called a subcontinent, or little continent. Almost 400,000,000 people, one fifth of all the people on the earth, live in India. They are of several races and speak a number of different languages.

A mountain wall curves around India on the north. These are the Himalaya Mountains. The whole range is so high that the peaks do not look much higher than the rest. Mount Kanchanjanga is about 28,000 feet above the sea. Mount Everest is more than 29,000 feet high. Many of these mountains are covered with snow the year around, and the people of India call them "the snows." There are passes through the mountains, but they are long, steep, and dangerous. The best passes are on the northwest, toward Afghanistan.

South of the mountains lies a vast lowland plain. It stretches about 1500 miles from east to west, and 800 miles from north to south. Through this plain flow two great rivers, the Indus and the Ganges. These rivers never run dry, for they are fed by streams from the snow-covered mountains. On the west, five rivers feed the Indus River, which flows south into the Arabian Sea. The Ganges River flows across the great plain toward the east, and spreads out into a delta which empties into the Bay of Bengal. A third great river is the Brahmaputra, which rises and flows for a long distance on the north side of the Himalayas. In eastern India it winds through the mountains and flows into the delta of the Ganges. Trace the courses of these three rivers on your map of India on page 322. This level plain, watered by its rivers, is the best farming region of India, except in one portion, the southern half of the Indus Valley, which is desert.

South of the lowland plain the land rises into a plateau. The surface of the plateau is gently rolling land of low, rounded hills and broad open valleys. It extends over most of southern India, leaving just a strip of lowland around the coast. This southern part of India is a peninsula, shaped like a triangle pointing southward into the Indian Ocean. On the west is the Arabian Sea, on the east the Bay of Bengal. Very near the tip of the peninsula is the island of Ceylon. By looking carefully at the map on page 322, fix in your mind these three separate parts of India: the mountain wall, the lowland plain, and the southern peninsular plateau.

India is occupied by two separate nations. They are known as Pakistan and the Republic of India. Pakistan lies in the northwest, and takes in the valley of the Indus River and the mountainous region to the west called Baluchistan. It also includes a large area in eastern India covering most of the Ganges Delta. The Republic of India includes the rest of this great subcontinent, with the exception of certain mountain districts. Study the boundaries of these two nations on your map.

One of the four known cradles of civilization is the great lowland plain of India. Five or six thousand years ago, as we have seen, men were learning civilized ways in Egypt beside the River Nile, and in the fertile region between the Tigris and the Euphrates. At the same time here in the Indus Valley lived another civilized people. They knew how to plant and harvest, how to make tools and build houses. On the banks of the Indus modern scientists have dug down in the sands and uncovered the walls of their houses, with bathrooms, wells, and drain pipes. They have found pottery, coins, chessmen, beautiful

The land of India



jewelry, and the oldest known model of a two-wheeled cart. We do not know what happened to the people who built these long-buried cities. We do not know what happened in India during the centuries that followed.

The known history of India begins. The next thing we know about India is that a great migration of barbarian tribes came into the country. Through the mountain passes on the northwest they came down into the Indus Valley. These warrior tribes were probably much like those tribes which came into Greece and Italy. Both these migrations began at about the same time, 2000 years before the birth of Christ. The different languages which grew out of the languages of these migrating barbarians have many words that are nearly alike. They are called the Indo-European, or Aryan, languages. The people are called Indo-Europeans because they migrated into both India and Europe. Follow their migration on the map above.

The Indo-Europeans who came to India found, already living in the great plain of India, a civilized people called Dravidians. These Dravidians had cities and castles and settled forms of government. They had ships in which they sailed west to trade with Mesopotamia and other regions. They had a more advanced civilization than the invaders. But the barbarians, being stronger warriors, conquered the Dravidians. They captured some and made them slaves. They slowly drove others southward out of their wide pleasant plain into the rolling hills of the plateau, which is called the Deccan.

This did not happen quickly. It took hundreds of years, a long time of struggle, with many battles. The Indo-Europeans not only fought the Dravidians but also fought among themselves for the new lands. Some of the barbarians and Dravidians married. More than a thousand years went by. Gradually the



Indo-European migrations

tribes settled into small kingdoms which filled the wide lowland plain. Each kingdom was ruled by a prince called a rajah. The plain was called *Hindustan*, or "land of the Indus." The people were called *Hindus*.

The Hindu people had their own religion. Their priests recited the beliefs of the people in poems and hymns. During the hundreds of years of warfare, other poems were made. The Hindus praised their leaders, celebrated their

Painted jar from the Indus Valley, showing the ancient art of India





The sacred cows of India wander unharmed through city streets

victories, and told stories about them just as the Greeks did. Some of these poems are beautiful and noble, and these writings of India's past are read and prized today.

The Hindu people had many wise men, or philosophers. These men wondered how the world was created. They wondered about the soul of man. They wondered how men could find God, and know his will. They wrote down what they thought, and the writings of these philosophers were gathered into books. These writings are full of great wisdom and truth, and men still study them. You remember how the philosophers of Greece guided some of the thinkers of later Western culture. In the same way, the Hindu philosophers guided many thinkers of Eastern cultures. These Hindu philosophers lived two or three hundred years before the time of Socrates. The people of India have always been deeply religious, and the life of the country has been shaped by their religious beliefs. The majority of the Indian people are Hindus, but there are also many Moslems, as we shall see later.

The Hindu believes that all life is sacred, the life of animals as well as the life of human beings. For this reason the Hindus eat no meat, and they will not kill any animal if they can help it. The cow is an especially sacred animal, and must not be killed for any reason.

Part of the Hindu religion has been the *caste* system. Among the Hindus there were four classes, called *castes*. The warriors were the most important, next came the priests, then the traders and farmers, and lowest, the craftsmen. Later on, when wars were less common, the priest class became the highest. It is called the *Brahman* caste, from the name of the god Brahma. The members of one caste were not permitted to marry, or eat, or even work with those of another caste. Each caste had customs of its own, and its members could engage only in certain occupations. If a Hindu failed to follow the rules of his caste he became an outcast. He belonged then to a fifth group, the lowest of all, known as the untouchables. These people had to do all of the hard, unpleasant work, and were not allowed to mingle with the other castes.

Buddha, the Great Teacher. About 500 B.C. there lived in northeast India the son of a king, whose name was Gautama. Looking about him he saw so much misery that he became very sad. He left his family and went away to find out why there was so much sorrow. While he sat under a tree one day, thinking and praying, he became "enlightened." He felt as if there were a light shining around him, and felt that he finally understood the cause of



A wise man and his disciples: the poet Tagore

sorrow and the way to find happiness. He went from village to village teaching others the way he had found. The cause of sorrow, he said, is *wanting* things, wanting praise and riches and an easy life. He said that to find happiness one must stop wanting things and seek only goodness.

He was called the *Buddha,* which means "the Enlightened One." He gathered a group of disciples to whom he talked. Gautama Buddha had no use for castes, and he taught all who came to him. He told the people that temple forms and ceremonies are not enough, and that every man must earn his own freedom from sorrow. The path away from sorrow toward happiness, said Buddha, begins with right understanding, right speech, and right action. Gautama Buddha found some followers in India, but his teaching spread more widely outside his own land than within it.

The spread of Buddhism. About 240 B.C., many years after Buddha died, an emperor called Asoka reigned in India. His empire grew until he ruled almost all of India. Then Asoka vowed he would fight no more. He became a follower of Buddha, and decided to spread Buddhism to other lands. He sent Buddhist teachers to the island of Ceylon, to Burma, and all the way to Egypt and Greece. Later other Buddhist teachers went to China and Japan, where millions of people accepted Buddhism as their religion. Today it is one of the world's great religions, but in India there are only a few Buddhists.

Village life. Nine tenths of the people of India have always lived in little villages or on farms. As the centuries passed, mountain tribes sometimes made war on the plains people, little kingdoms were united under a strong ruler, then broke up again into small states.

This happened over and over. But no matter what went on in the cities, no matter what ruler made the laws, the people in the villages went right on living as before.

The villagers dressed very simply. Since most of India has a warm climate, they needed little clothing. They wrapped strips of clean white cotton cloth around themselves. They plowed their fields with bullock teams, or with strong, slow, water buffaloes. They raised cotton to make their cloth. They raised grain for food: wheat and millet where it was dry, and rice in the low regions where the rivers overflowed. They paid their rent with a part of their crops; and often there was not much left.

India is still an agricultural land, and the villages of today, like the village where Rama and Varga of our story lived, are very much like they were 2000 years ago. While we read of conquerors and rulers, we must not forget the millions of common people at work in their villages.

How Greece touched India. There is another thing to keep in mind while reading further in the story of India. Ask yourself sometimes what was going on in the rest of the world at the same time. You have read the story of Europe and the West. Now you are reading the story of Asia. Sometimes there are links which join the stories. Such links help us to remember what was going on at the same time in both places.

One of the links was Alexander the Great. He conquered Egypt and Persia, and even marched through the high mountain passes down into the valley of the Indus. Alexander came to India after Buddha had died and before Asoka ruled. He did not stay long, but you will remember that Greek civilization followed Alexander everywhere. In the mountains little groups of Greek colonists and traders settled. In this way Greek art and ideas came to India. More important still, travel routes were opened up between India and the lands of the Mediterranean. Travelers from the West came to visit the East, and wrote accounts of the splendor of the Indian rajahs and their courts.

How Rome touched India. The far south of India was the land of the Tamils, a dark Dravidian people, who were very industrious. They wove beautiful silk and cotton cloth, hunted elephants in the forests for their ivory tusks, mined precious stones, and gathered spices. Their ships went far along the coast in each direction.

The Roman Empire reached to the Red Sea. Roman sea captains found that their ships could reach Tamil ports quickly. Roman merchants had vases and lamps and wine to exchange for the rice and fine cloth of the Tamils. Back to Rome, also, went peacocks for the gardens of wealthy Romans, pearls for their ladies, ivory for fine furniture, and spices for rich food. No wonder India became known in Europe as a land of rich and rare things.

India during the Middle Ages. In our story of the West we read about the Arab armies which conquered far and wide and built the Moslem empire. In later years they reached India, too. Many of the Hindu people left their Hindu religion and became Moslems. Finally a Moslem general conquered the kingdoms of Hindustan. He made the rajahs obey him and called himself the sultan. Moslem sultans ruled India for more than three hundred years. The Moslems tried to make all the Hindus accept Islam, but this was not easy, for the two religions are different. Some of the sultans treated their Hindu subjects cruelly, but they could not put an end to the Hindu religion. It continued side by side with the Moslem faith.

While the Moslems ruled India there was steady trade with Europe. This was in the later Middle Ages, at about the time Marco



The Taj Mahal, beautiful tomb built for the wife of Shah Jehan

Polo made his famous journey to the court of Kublai Khan in China. The great Mongol empire had spread from the coast of China all the way across Asia and into Europe. After the time of Kublai Khan the Mongol empire began to break up. But India did not escape the power of the Mongols.

The Moguls of India. About the time Columbus discovered America a powerful Mongol chief conquered the forces of the sultan of India. Then, for nearly three hundred years, the Mongols ruled in India. The Indians called them not Mongols, but *Moguls*. One of these Mogul rulers built for his wife a magnificent tomb called the Taj Mahal, meaning "Gem of Buildings." Some people think it is the most beautiful building in the world.

Europe comes exploring. At the time when the Moguls began to rule India, Vasco da Gama found the way around Africa from Portugal to India. During the years that followed, many ships from Europe came by this route, seeking the riches of India and the East. Portuguese, French, and British traders made settlements on the coast. They gained territory sometimes by conquest, sometimes by making peaceful agreements, or treaties, with the rajahs of the many Indian states. The Europeans also fought with each other, and the British proved the strongest in India. By the end of the eighteenth century the Portuguese and the French were holding only a few ports. The British became the real rulers of India.

British rule in India. In some parts of India the people were ruled directly by British governors. In other parts Britain made treaties with the Indian rajahs. Sometimes there were revolts, since the Indian people did not like being under foreign rule. The people themselves had had little voice in the government under the Moguls and the rajahs. At first they gained no new rights from the British governors. But gradually, the Indians demanded the right to govern themselves. Slowly the British government began granting the people of India greater power in their country. Later we shall read more about these problems of government in India.

At first Britain brought chiefly commerce and trade to India, but later modern industry and modern transportation also began to grow. British government and business, using Indian labor, built roads and railroads, harbors, irrigation systems, and airports. They brought in the telegraph, telephone, and radio. They built factories to prepare some of India's cotton and jute and oil seeds for market. They provided some schools and colleges.

But these changes came chiefly in a few large cities of India. They have made little difference to the millions of people who live on the farms and in the little villages. Their lives are much the same as the lives of those who tilled the soil 2000 years ago. The work of most of the people and their ways of life are connected with the products of the land. What about these people? How do they work? What do they send to the markets of the world?

The People of India at Work

India has three seasons, a cold season, a hot season, and a rainy season. These seasons are caused by the monsoons, winds that blow during certain times of the year. From June to October the southwest monsoon blows from the Arabian Sea bringing rain, and crops grow rapidly in the moist heat. When this wind stops blowing the dry season begins. The northeast monsoon blows from November or December to March. This is a dry, land wind, bringing cold air from the high mountains. We might not think it very cold, but India's thinly clothed people shiver in the chill wind. When this monsoon stops blowing the days are hot. India bakes under the sun through the hot months of March, April, and May, until the summer monsoon brings again the cooling rain. Some parts of India receive more rain than others, and rain has a great deal to do with the work and life of the Indian people. Turn back to page 216 and study the rainfall map.

Let's take a trip. India and Pakistan have many different kinds of land formation—river delta and desert plain, dry plateau, rainy coast, and towering mountains. Let's have a picture of the people of India and Pakistan at work on their land, a motion picture full of colors. We can imagine that we are in an airplane, flying low enough to see what is going on. Keep your bookmark at page 322, and follow our journey on the map. It is late summer. We shall start in northeast India, in the state of Bengal. Here the Ganges spreads out into a great delta, with many river channels. On the channel farthest west is the port of Calcutta.

Calcutta is the home of more than two million people. Its location, on the delta of the Ganges and the Brahmaputra rivers, makes it a crossroads of commerce and transportation, a railroad and shipping center. It is the largest city in India, and one of the largest in the world.



Calcutta docks

Calcutta is surprisingly modern, and much like a European city. It was founded by the British, and was for many years the capital of British India. There are miles of wide avenues and thousands of fine, big buildings. A very large park, called the *maidan*, stretches along the river. At one end of it stands the stately and beautiful, white-domed building erected as a memorial to Queen Victoria. The maidan is not planted and trimmed into orderly patterns like many parks, but is more like a natural forest glade in the middle of the city. Here the people come to enjoy grass and trees and shrubbery in a lovely freedom. Calcutta is also an important center of education, being the home of the University of Calcutta.

In Calcutta, however, we find some things we would not see in America or Europe. Like older Indian cities it has Hindu temples and Mohammedan mosques and open markets, or bazaars. People of many races and varied costumes throng the streets. Bullock carts make their way along beside streetcars and sleek new automobiles. Sometimes all traffic is held up as a group of cows ambles across a boulevard. The cow is sacred to the Hindus, and cattle are allowed to roam unharmed wherever they will. Outside the temples beggars sit cross-legged on their bits of blanket, hoping for a few coins from those who pass. In the Indian section there are fine palaces of wealthy Hindus. But most of the native people are laborers and factory workers who live crowded together in mud huts along narrow streets.

Not far from Calcutta is India's largest iron region, and coal also is found close by. This has made Calcutta an industrial city as well as a commercial center. There are steel mills,



Bullock teams are often used to plow the muddy rice fields

cotton mills, and textile factories, as well as many packing and shipping plants. From the flat delta lands which surround Calcutta come vegetables and grain to feed the people of this vast city, as well as to send to other parts of India.

Calcutta is seventy miles from the sea, but large ocean vessels steam up the river to its docks. Its most important exports are jute, tea, tobacco, and lac, which is used in making shellac. Factories in Calcutta prepare and pack these products. We shall take off from a Calcutta airport and see how these things grow.

We fly northeast across the wide flat delta of the Ganges River. Actually our starting time might depend on weather conditions. Even in late summer the rains are still falling, and a summer monsoon rain is like a warm deluge. But we will suppose that we can begin our journey, knowing that the rains will grow less and disappear as we go.

Down below us as we fly is a land all fresh and green. Wherever we look we see green fields and the silver gleam of water. The streams and creeks of the Ganges delta stretch out like a network. Between them are many fields still flooded. Here rice is sown under water. It is called *padi*, or paddy. When the paddy shoots are six inches high they must be transplanted. It is hard work to separate these tender plants and reset them in careful rows. See those men and boys working, how they bend and stoop! The work is all done in the water. At first the plants grow best right in the water. They grow very fast, several inches a day in this warm, wet weather. They need less water as they grow. Paddy is the summer crop. It is planted when the rains begin, and is ready for reaping between November and February.

Where are the villages? The farmers in this section do not live in villages. Do you see that mound in the middle of the field, with a

thatched hut on it? The farmer built that mound to keep his house above the floods, and he lives in the middle of his field. A great deal of rice is raised in India, but it is not shipped to other countries. It is all needed at home for food. Rice is the most important food crop of India.

What are those fields of a different shade of green? That is jute. The seeds were planted in March or April. Now the plants are much higher than our heads. They will be ten or twelve feet high when they are ready to cut in September. The stalks will be piled in standing water and allowed to soak. Then the fiber can be stripped from them by hand. It will be washed and dried in the shade, then sorted, graded, and baled. This coarse fiber has been raised by the farmers of India for hundreds of years. Once they wove it into clothing, but now they wear cotton clothes. About half of India's jute is made into gunny sacks in the mills of Calcutta. The sacks are used for shipping grain. The other half of the jute crop is exported to make gunny sacks, burlap, rope, and a kind of carpet.



Cutting jute in India

Our plane speeds northward toward the mountains. We are flying over the region sometimes called the wettest in the world. Around the town of Cherrapunji in central Assam more than four hundred inches of rain falls every year. We fly on over the rolling hills and valleys of the state of Assam and turn slowly to follow the Brahmaputra River westward. On the warm slopes along each side of the river are tea plantations.

Tea plants are hardy little evergreen shrubs. They are not injured by frost, but they like a long, warm, moist growing season. They are pruned to form bushes. When the young shoots appear, leaves of a certain size are picked. Hundreds of workers are busy among the green bushes. Many have come from other nearby regions to help with the picking. It must be done every week or ten days during the season. Here in Assam there are sixteen pickings. The leaves are spread on wire trays, where they wither and partly ferment. Then they are dried and sifted. This region supplies nearly half the tea exports of the world.

Leaving the Brahmaputra behind we fly westward toward the Ganges River. To the north are the mountains. The lower foothills are covered with forests and open patches of coarse grass. The higher hills and ridges are veiled in mist. But above the clouds, the highest peaks gleam white, like visions floating in the sky, "the snows of India."

Below us now unrolls the wide Ganges Valley. Don't forget to look back at the map on page 322 and trace our flight. The plain looks quite level, but the land is slowly rising.



The Himalayan Mountains, called by Hindus "the snows"

There is less rain here. We do not see so many rice fields. We fly over fields of flax, mustard, and sesame. The flax is not raised for its fiber, as in Ireland, but for its seed, which is called linseed. It is crushed to produce the oil we find so excellent for paints and varnishes. In our country mustard seeds are used in pickles, and the flat, white sesame seeds are often sprinkled over the top of bakers' rolls. In India both mustard and sesame, like flax, are grown for their oil. The people of India use much oil in cooking. The seedcake, after the oil is pressed out, can be used as fertilizer, or be fed to cattle. Most of it is exported.

As we fly farther up the plain of the Ganges it becomes drier. Most of the farming land here must be irrigated. We see canals leading from the rivers, from tanks, or from wells. In many of the fields millet has been planted. Cattle are feeding in some of the fields. They are odd-looking cattle with a hump between their shoulders. Soon these fields will be plowed again, with slow teams of oxen or water buffaloes. Wheat will be sown after the last of the summer rains. It will grow during the winter and be cut early in spring before the heat begins. We see fields of barley, too, and of sugar cane, maize, and cotton. Sprinkled over this wide plain, among the fields, are thousands of villages.

Most of India's farmers live in villages. The houses huddle together in friendly fashion on the bank of a stream, or around a water hole or spring. Many of the villages depend on wells, and have as many as thirty or forty wells from which the villagers draw their water for drinking, washing, and irrigation. Each day the farmers leave the village and go out to

work on their scattered fields. Just as in the village of Rama and Varga, the farmer may have inherited several little pieces of land, and must look after them all as well as he can. However, many of the village farmers have no land of their own but work for landowners, paying part of their produce as rent.

The houses of the village are built of mud blocks, plastered over with a special mixture to help protect them from the heavy rains. Each house has several rooms enclosing a small open courtyard, where much of the family life goes on. Here mother and grandmother spin their cotton thread, and father sets up his loom to weave cloth for the family clothing. Not a great deal of clothing is needed in this warm country, a loin cloth, called a *dhoti*, for the men, and a wide strip called a *sari*, draped gracefully around the waist and over the shoulders of the women. The men often wear another strip of cloth wound about the head. This is called a turban, and it is necessary to protect them from the heat while they work.



A farmer's wife reels cotton while her husband prepares a loom for the weaving

In the courtyard, also, is the grinding stone, where meal or flour is ground fresh each day for the family bread, thin dry pancakes of wheat, such as Varga carried to Rama. Here in eastern India rice is part of the family food. There may also be cheese, and beans or peas, cooked with *ghee*, a yellow oil of butter from the milk of the water-buffalo. At dinnertime the tablecloth is spread on the ground. The men are served first, eating with their fingers from large leaves used as plates. It is their custom to eat in silence. Then the women have their turn.

We would think the village very untidy, for scraps and rubbish often are allowed to gather on the streets. But the little houses are neat and clean inside, and clothes are kept spotless with constant washing. At the bank of the stream, or beside one of the wells, the women gather to wash their clothing. Soap is expensive and is rarely seen. Such a pounding on stones, and such a rinsing there is, before the white strips are spread on the grass to dry. It is a good thing that the people of India know how to weave firm, durable cloth, for it gets hard treatment. While the women work, they laugh and talk, exchanging the village news.

The men have their chance to talk together also. Very few of the tiny farms produce enough to take care of the farmer's family. He must find other work to do in his spare time, carving, carpenter work, or leather craft. Often he takes his work to an open doorway where neighbors have gathered, so he can talk with them about his problems, for the farmer and his family have many problems. In spite of



Marble carvers of Agra make small models of the Taj Mahal

hard work, they have barely enough to live on. If a crop fails, or if illness comes, hunger and starvation are just around the corner. Or else the farmer must borrow money to buy food and medicine, and his debt to the money-lender grows larger.

To the Hindus the Ganges is the sacred river of India. It is worshiped as giver of life to the land. All along its banks are towns, many of them very old. Holiest of these is the ancient city of Benares, a city of a thousand temples. Flying low we can see these shrines and temples rising along the river bank in gorgeous confusion. The buildings face in all directions, turning their backs to each other.

If we should alight from our plane and walk through Benares, we should be amazed at the throngs who have come here to pray in the temples and bathe in the Ganges, mother of India. Many of the people of India look forward all their lives to the time when they can make a pilgrimage to Benares.

We leave the Ganges and fly up the valley of the Jumna, one of the rivers flowing into it. On the banks of the Jumna we fly over Agra, another beautiful city, but very different from Benares. Here sparkle the minarets and domes of many Moslem temples and palaces. Among them, beautiful as a jewel, stands the Taj Mahal, built long ago by the Mogul emperor for his lovely wife. We can see its slender minarets, its curving domes, gleaming white as pearls, but we are not close enough to see the delicate lacelike carving of the marble. In the busy modern part of Agra, as in so many parts of India, are humming cotton mills. Flying northwestward from Agra, we are close to the borders of Rajputana.

Rajputana is a region ruled by Indian rajahs, or princes. It is about as large as Missouri and Oklahoma combined, and it is divided into more than twenty little states. The rough hilly area over which we are flying cuts diagonally across it, becoming mountainous

in the west. Northwest of the hills lies arid desert, dotted with oases. In the southeast are more fertile lands, with areas of jungle. If we could travel through this part of India, we would find ourselves in a storybook land of princes and palaces, elephant caravans, royal courts and ancient splendor of jeweled thrones. The princes are well educated and quite modern in their interests. They have their airplanes as well as their elephants, also their polo ponies, automobiles, and private cars on railroad trains. Life in the beautiful homes of these nobles, however, is much the same now as that of wealthy people anywhere. Many of the princes are giving up their power and making their states more democratic. Meanwhile, they send representatives to the government of the Republic of India.

Swinging northwest, we fly over New Delhi, capital of the Republic of India. Delhi is a city of about 400,000. The new city with its splendid government buildings stands a short distance from the old city. It is a great railroad center for all north India. Delhi has cotton mills, flour mills, and sugar mills. On the irrigated lands, which stretch for miles around Delhi, grow wheat, cotton, and sugar cane, which keep these mills and their thousands of workers busy. The sugar cane is made into a coarse brown sugar used by the people of India. There is not enough to export. This is the hottest section of India in the summer.

Beyond Delhi to the northwest we fly over the plains of the Punjab. This word means "five rivers." Five great rivers wind through these wide plains and flow into the Indus. Although the Punjab is very hot in summer it is cool in winter, often having frost at night. There is little rainfall. Irrigation canals bring water to the fields of maize, cotton, and oilseeds. Cattle are feeding in the fields. As in the Ganges area much of this land will be in wheat fields when autumn comes, for this



The boy watching his father will some day do this beautiful Kashmir embroidery

is the wheat center of India. In this dry region it is hard to grow rice. Wheat has become the favorite food of the people, and some is exported also.

The Vale of Kashmir. One of the five rivers is the Jhelum River. If we should follow this river into the rugged, mountainous country of the Himalayas from which it flows, we would come to a wide and beautiful valley. Here the hills are covered with mountain flowers, and the lower slopes are terraced for fruit trees. The river is dotted with flower-covered islands and slow-moving houseboats. This Vale of Kashmir is one of the beauty spots of the world and is famous for wood-carving and the weaving of beautiful shawls.

The Province of Sind. Our plane flies southward now, following the Indus River through the province of Sind. This is desert country. Farmers must irrigate their crops, and wheat, barley, rice, and cotton are raised. A new crop is peanuts. They yield a pale yellow oil for making soap and margarine. Wherever there is no irrigation the land is brown and barren. But there are thousands of miles of irrigation canals in Sind, and this desert land is being turned into a productive garden spot.

At the delta of the Indus is the city of Karachi, the capital city of Moslem India, now known as Pakistan. Karachi is one of India's great ports, and its chief exports are wheat and cotton. The climate of Karachi is too dry for the manufacture of cotton.

Baluchistan. To the northwest of Sind rises the mountainous area of Baluchistan. Here dwell nomad tribes, following their flocks of sheep and goats, cattle, and sometimes camels. In winter they leave the cold mountains for the valleys. Some come down to the plains of Sind. They raise a little grain by means of tunnel irrigation. Wool and leather come from Baluchistan to the port of Karachi.

Southward we fly down the west coast of India. Along the ocean is a strip of flat, fertile land dotted with villages and green paddy fields. In the distance rough hills, called the Western Ghats, rise to the plateau of the Deccan. This part of India has heavy rain. The summer winds from the ocean drop their load of moisture as they rise over the Ghats. These hills are covered with tropical forest, much of it evergreen. There are many teak trees. Teakwood is highly valued because it is so durable. It contains an oil which resists water, and this makes it excellent for shipbuilding. Teak beams have been known to last more than a thousand years. In the lumber camps of these forests elephants are used to drag and pile the heavy logs.

On an island in a fine large harbor is Bombay, next to Calcutta the largest city in India.

A workman climbs a tall coconut palm to collect the ripe nuts



The coconuts are split open and spread out to dry



In Bombay there are cotton mills, for this damp climate is excellent for spinning and weaving cotton. Up above the city, on the Deccan Plateau, is one of the best cotton districts of India. This is because the heavy black soil holds moisture. Cotton and teak make a busy place of Bombay. Streams in the Ghats have been harnessed to provide electric power for the mills. Bombay exports raw cotton and cotton cloth, peanuts and other oilseeds, and hides and leather from the herds on the plateau. Although cattle cannot be killed in India their hides are taken for leather when they die.

As we go south we fly lower to get a better view. Every hut has its garden, its own little paddy field, a mango tree, and some coconut palms. Along the ocean is a wide fringe of swamps and coconut groves. Notice the cluster of brown nuts in each tall palm tree. These trees bear most of the year. Sometimes one tree will produce as many as 200 nuts. The people gather only the ripe nuts. Watch these men at work beside that stack of nuts. They strike each one on the iron point of a stake set up in the ground. This strips off the thick brown husks. The husks are carried to the edge of the lagoon and dumped into the water. There they will stay for several months, until they have rotted. When they are soft, the husks are taken out and beaten to remove the coarse strong fiber. This can be done more quickly by machinery, but there is machinery only in towns with mills. The fiber is called *coir*, and is used to make rope, floor matting, brushes, and brooms.

The coconut itself is cut in two with a hatchet. The broken nuts are spread out to dry in the sun. If we were to fly low enough we could see the white flesh curling away from the shell as it dries. This white meat is called *copra*. When it is shredded and dried it becomes the coconut we enjoy so much in candy and cake. Much of the copra is pressed to obtain coconut oil. A great deal of this oil is exported to make soap, margarine, and candles.

The white meat, or copra, is scooped out of the shell and dried still further



These workers are pressing coconut oil from copra by using oxen to run their press





People of India at the great gate of one of their holiest temples

Farther south we come to a beautiful tropical region called the Malabar Coast. Along the ocean are sand dunes covered with coconut palms. The hills rising to the Ghats are covered with dense evergreen forest. Between hills and dunes, through the flat land, wind long lagoons connected by canals. You could travel many miles in a little boat. On the hillsides are fields of peppers with scarlet pods. There is a large population here, many little villages, and also jungle tribes. The chief food is rice, but the coconut palm is important. The leaves are used for thatching the roofs of dwellings, and the trunks for building and firewood.

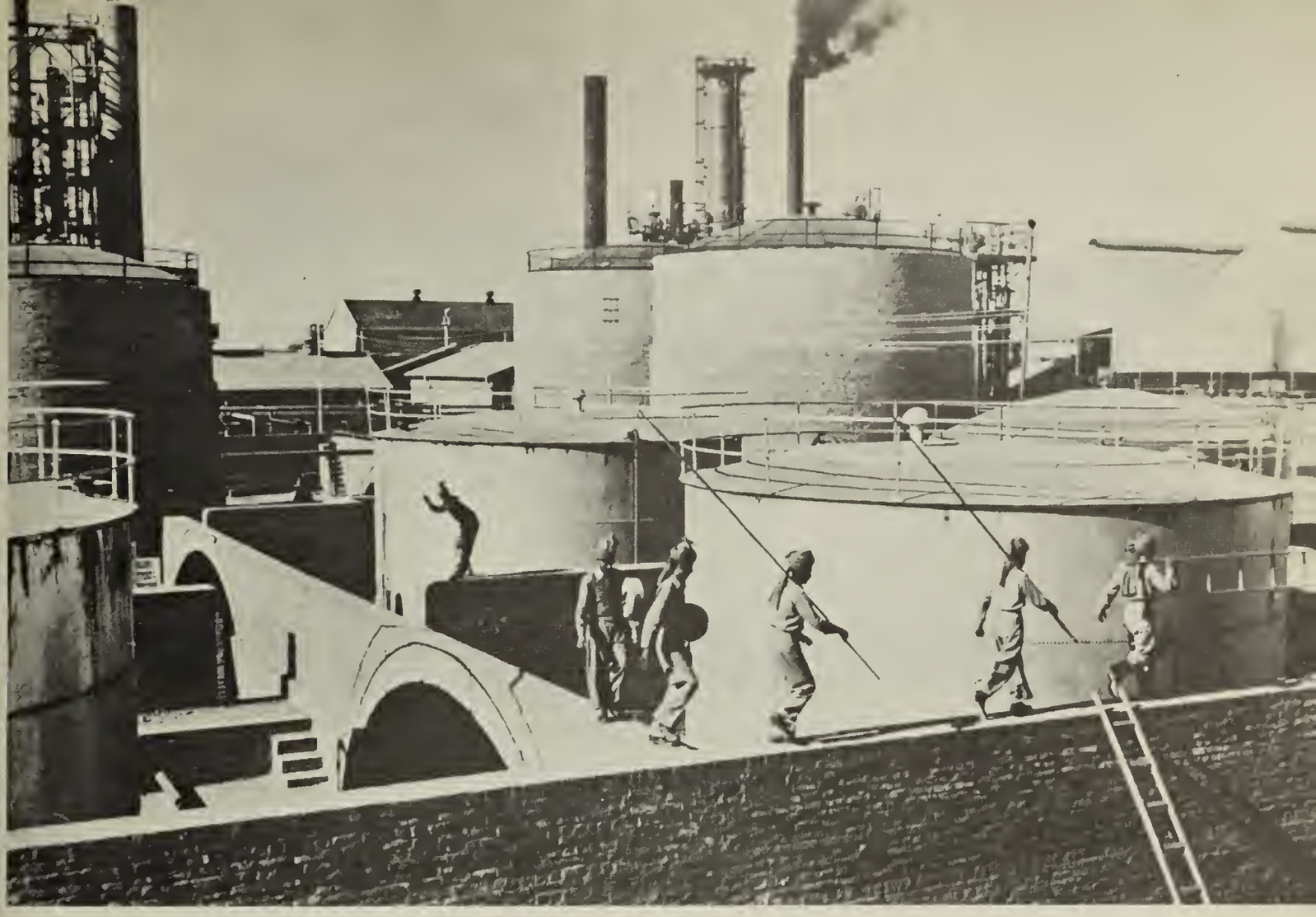
Tamil land. Now we have reached India's far south. Up across the hills we fly, over the plateau, and over the country of the Tamils. The cities here have many beautiful old-style Hindu buildings. It is warm here the year around, but the rainfall is very uncertain. Crops must be irrigated. The high hills on the western rim of the plateau keep the southwest monsoon from bringing rain to the plateau lands. Dry years can mean famine on the Deccan Plateau. Rice grows where there is water, and millet in the dry regions.

The east coast. As our plane speeds northeastward over the uneven plateau we see sheep and cattle feeding on the grasslands. We fly over Madras, a great port of the east coast. Its principal exports are cotton goods, and raw cotton, hides and leather from the plateau.

Farther north the eastern hills are rugged and broken, and covered with forest. This is one of the wildest parts of India. Here live tribes of jungle people, who knew nothing about civilization until a few years ago. One of their occupations is gathering *lac*. This is a sticky stuff from a small forest insect. It is scraped off the trees, melted and purified. Then it is sent to Calcutta to be exported. It is used to make shellac, the hard, clear varnish we find so useful. Leaving the hills behind we find ourselves flying again over the great Ganges delta region near Calcutta, and our flight around India is completed.

India's industry. There are many woodworkers in India, and also workers in metal. Of the metal workers, perhaps we might be most interested in the jewelers. These men make delicate silver and gold ornaments. They also embroider beautiful patterns on cloth, using fine silver and gold threads. But, of course, this kind of work is handicraft rather than machine industry.

The textile industry is the most important to India. There was a time when great quantities of cotton cloth, woven by the people of India, were shipped to Great Britain. But



Firemen drill by exercising along the walls of an Indian oil refinery

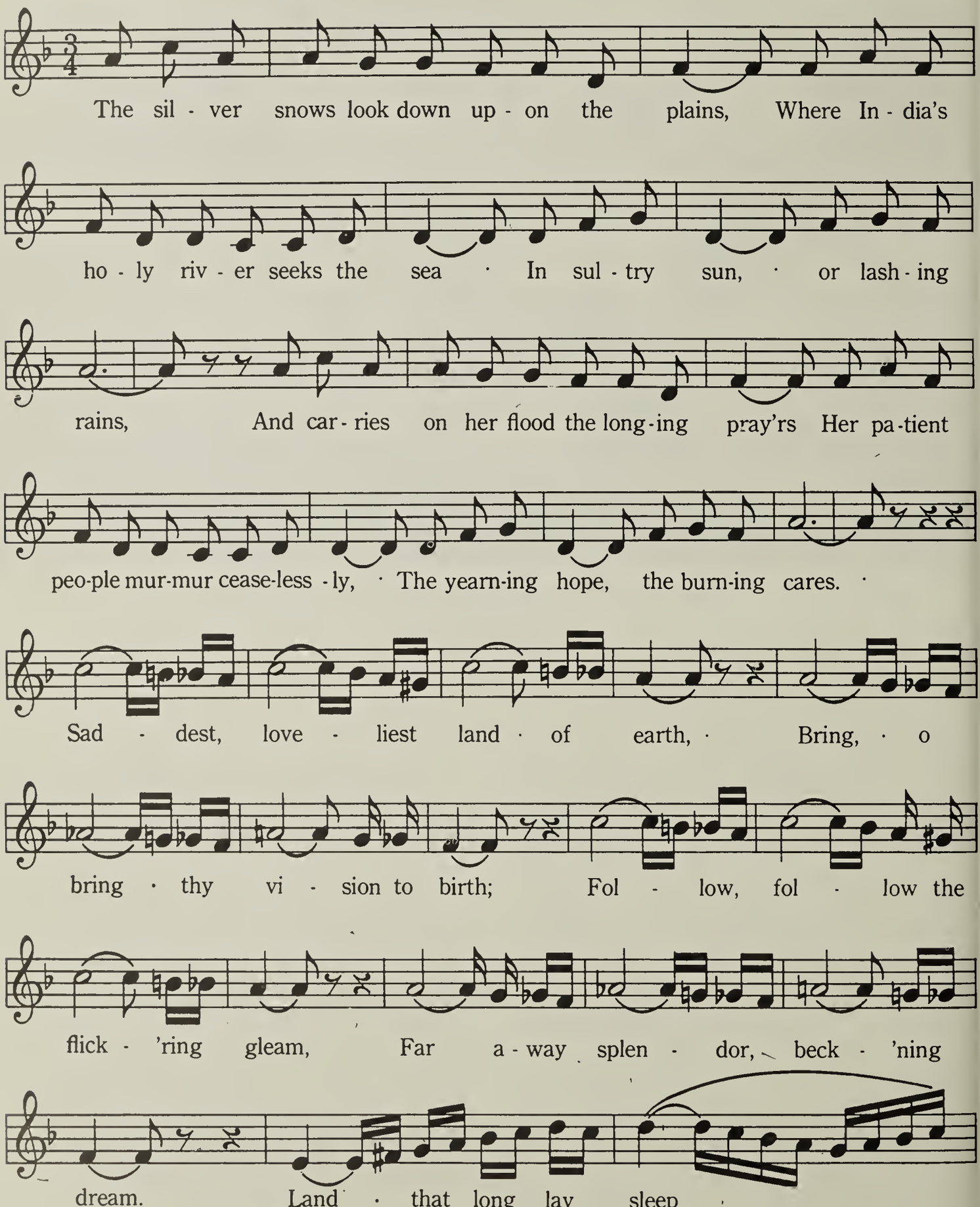
when the Industrial Revolution started machines humming in England, cloth could be made there much cheaper, and the hand-woven cloth of India was not in such demand. Then England began buying large amounts of raw cotton from India instead of cloth. Now India, too, has machines. The factories of the few large cities spin cotton thread, and weave cotton cloth, as well as gunny sacking of jute fiber.

India also has coal and iron ore, and an iron-and-steel industry is being built up. Oil refineries are being built where oil has been found. Certain thoughtful leaders of India are making plans for other industries, such as soap making. These will give work to the people of India by manufacturing things which they need from materials which their land provides.

Transportation in India shows every stage of man's changing civilization. On the farms and in country villages bullock carts carry the peasants' produce. But automobiles, motor trucks, and busses are found wherever there are good highways. Railroads cross the great plain. Every large city has airports, where huge transport and cargo ships rise into the air and cross ocean or mountain to distant places. In the dry hilly country west of the Punjab camels are still used as transport animals. In the busy modern port of Karachi you may see sacks and bales being transferred from camel train to air-express plane. India is in the midst of change from the old to the new.

Song of India

Grace S. Dawson — Nicolai Rimski-Korsakov





ing, · Hear · thy peo - ple weep

ing. · Rise · the sun · streams o'er thee!

Morn - ing walks · be - fore thee! Leave · thy

heav - y · sor - row, Greet · a bright - er mor -

row. Thy sil - ver snows are ros - y in the dawn, Thy riv - er

seeks the ev - er - last - ing sea, · The dark is fled, the night is gone. · ·



Modern India: the airport at New Delhi

India's Problems

India's three greatest problems are land, religion, and government. Suppose we look at the land problem first. From the land must come the food for India's millions of people.

What about India's food? Even in good times, many of the people of India are thin and underfed. India is one of the most crowded parts of our world. The land does not grow enough food for the people, partly because the soil itself is worn out and needs fertilizer. But the farmers burn the manure because they have no other fuel. They usually sell the oil-cake fertilizer to pay what they owe the moneylender. Chemical fertilizer would be still better, but it costs money, and the farmers of India have been very poor.

The farms in India are often no more than three or four acres, and they do not produce enough to keep a farmer and his family decently fed. The farmer then has to borrow from the moneylender, and this gets him deeper and deeper into debt. Some way must be found to farm the land in larger sections, perhaps through the use of co-operatives like the one Rama wanted to bring to his village. Then the farmers would be able to use modern machinery instead of the slow bullock and buffalo teams, and India's land could begin to give its farmers a real living.

In order to raise bigger crops in India, the people need money to buy fertilizer. They need modern machinery, more irrigation, more dams and canals. The poor farmers in the villages do not yet know about all these things. They must be taught. Schools and model farms are needed. The growth of industry will

also help. Industry will provide jobs for many people and money with which to buy food from other countries.

The problem of religion. Differences in religion have been a source of trouble in India for centuries. The two most important religious groups, as we have seen, are the Hindus and the Moslems. Their ways of living and their ways of worship are different and have often caused misunderstanding. In some parts of India the people are mostly Hindus but the rulers are Moslems, while in other parts Hindu rajahs rule over Moslem subjects. This often causes bitterness. Sometimes religious differences break out into actual fighting. The people of India of all religions, if they hope to make real freedom for themselves and independence for their country, will have to find peaceful ways to live and work together.

Some old customs which have been connected with religion must be put aside before India can be truly free. High-caste Hindus have copied the Moslems in keeping their women veiled. Moslem and Hindu alike must free their women to take part in the modern life of their country. The caste system has made it hard for India to change. Courageous men and women in public life have been trying to end this system. The most cruel of all the caste rules has been ended by law. The "untouchables" are now beginning to associate freely with other people.

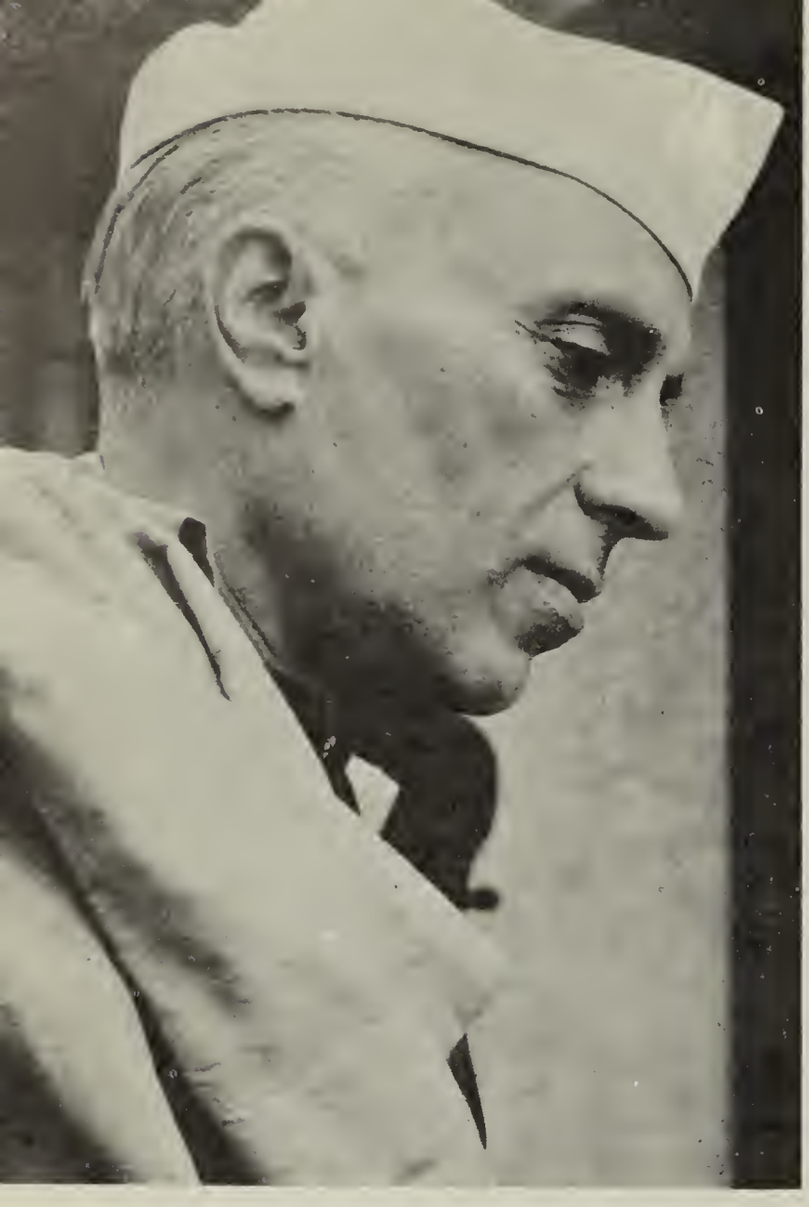
What about India's government? The leaders of India long wanted India to be entirely independent. But there were many difficult problems to face, and many ways of looking at these problems. The British leaders at first wanted to remain as the rulers of India. Slowly they became more willing to accept Indian independence. Even then, the Indian leaders were unable to agree among themselves as to what kind of future India should have.

One famous Hindu who studied law in England came back to India to become a leader of his people. His name was Mohandas Gandhi. Gandhi did not believe in bloodshed or force, and he told the Indian people to follow peaceful ways. He urged them to demand their independence, but not to fight. If Gandhi's followers thought that a law was unjust, they disobeyed that law and were put in prison. Gandhi himself was often imprisoned for opposing the government. But sometimes the Indian people were not willing to follow Gandhi's peaceful ways. Gandhi was killed by one of his own countrymen in 1948.



Gandhi, a great Hindu leader and teacher

Another important Indian leader is the Hindu Jawaharlal Nehru. Nehru has seen



Jawaharlal Nehru, one of India's strong leaders, believes firmly in education

that much of India's trouble lies in poverty and ignorance. He has urged that schools be set up in all the villages, and that the people be given a chance to learn about modern methods of health. He has demanded that the money lenders be controlled, so that the village farmers will be better able to make a living.

Still another strong leader was Mohammed Ali Jinnah, who died in 1948. Jinnah was a Moslem, and insisted that the Moslems throughout India should be independent and have a separate state of their own. Besides the Indian leaders, there are the Indian princes, each ruling in his own state.

After the Second World War the British government finally decided to withdraw from India, and to allow the country to be governed by the Indians themselves. The people of British India, however, could not agree on a united government. So in 1947 two dominions were formed: the Dominion of India, in which the people are mostly Hindus, and the Dominion of Pakistan, in which the people are mostly Moslems. Now, however, India is no longer a dominion. It has become an independent republic. Most of the Princely States have joined with India or Pakistan. These two nations are members of the British Commonwealth of Nations. Both countries have many problems to solve. Among the important ones are disputes over land and trade agreements.

The Indian people have many difficult problems. Surely few countries in the world have harder questions to answer than India. Life is changing greatly in India. Freedom should help to solve the country's problems.

Ceylon

The island of Ceylon lies near the tip of the peninsula of India. After the Second World War this colony of Great Britain became a dominion in the Commonwealth of Nations. In the northern part of Ceylon are many Tamils who crossed over from Tamil Land. They are Hindu in religion. The native people of Ceylon are Buddhists.

The coast of Ceylon is only 22 miles from India. Daily steamers connect the railroads of Ceylon with those of India. Near the steamer port is the Gulf of Mannar, famous for its pearl fishing. A "fishery" is held only in certain years, when there are enough full-grown oysters. These are gathered by skilled Tamil divers. The oysters are allowed to rot,



Women pick tea leaves on a plantation in Ceylon

and then the pearls are collected from the washings.

The island has a wide coastal plain and a central region of hills. It is very near the equator and has a warm even climate and plenty of rain. In the level lands and valleys rice grows abundantly, two crops a year. Even then the natives do not produce all they need, but must import some from India or Burma. Along the coastal plain they gather the coconut crop, which is a large one, and dry the copra for export. Spices, cloves, and cinnamon grow in Ceylon. Cinnamon is the most important. The cinnamon tree likes a light sandy soil, and grows well wherever this soil is found. The inner bark of the young shoots, when dried, curls into the cinnamon sticks we buy at our grocer's. They are ground to make delicious brown cinnamon powder. In the southwest grows a fragrant grass called citronella. From this grass an oil is prepared which is used in perfume or as a protection against insects.

In the hill country, tea and rubber plants are grown on plantations, which are usually owned by large companies. Both green and black tea are raised, and Ceylon exports nearly as much tea as India. North and east of the hills the cacao tree grows. This tree produces the beans from which cocoa and chocolate are made by the process which the boys watched in the factory at Amsterdam.

In the hills of Ceylon precious stones are found—sapphires, rubies, moonstones—and also the graphite used in lead pencils.

Colombo, on the west coast, is the capital of Ceylon and the chief port. Tea, cocoa, coconut, and rubber are the most important exports. The industries of the island are all related to these products—preparing them and packing them for market.

Study Questions

1. Where is India, and how many people live there?
2. What are the three important parts of India?
3. When did Gautama Buddha live, and what were some of his teachings?
4. Where do we find most of the Buddhists today?
5. How did early Greece and Rome touch India?
6. When did the Moslems rule India?
7. How did the British become governors of India?
8. What can you tell of India's present government?
9. What are India's three seasons?
10. In what part of India is wheat grown? tea? rice? cotton?
11. What are the four great ports of India, and what are the chief exports of each?
12. What is the chief machine industry of India?

Interesting Things to Do

1. On the blackboard draw a time chart like those in Chapter 5 and Chapter 9. Make a time line for the story of India and one for that of Europe. Join them by links like those suggested in this chapter: trade, travelers, or events. Let each space represent 500 years. Look carefully through this chapter and earlier chapters to find out what goes in each space.

2. Several students may enjoy making a series of pictures illustrating these links in the story of India and Europe.

3. Make a list of the goods you would have to sell if you were an importer ordering things from India and Ceylon. Can you bring any of these things to the schoolroom for a table exhibit?

4. The class might be interested in keeping a scrapbook of newspaper clippings on current events in India. Everyone should keep his eyes open for clippings to bring to class. Once a week students can hold a current-events session to discuss the clippings they have brought in.

5. Draw on the blackboard a large outline map of India. With colored chalks indicate the different kinds of agriculture in various regions. Put in with dotted lines the chief parallels of latitude and the meridians of longitude on the extreme east and west boundaries.

6. Study the map on page 298 and see if you can answer the following questions: What other tropical land have you studied in this unit about Asia? Does it lie as near the equator as India does? Does it produce any of the same crops? What is the important difference in climate?

A Talk about India's Problems

These questions will take careful thought:

1. What three kinds of freedom will the people of India gain when they solve their three great problems?
2. Could India have democracy and a caste system at the same time?
3. How will education help India?
4. How would increased electric power help education?

Riddles from India

Each sentence below describes a plant raised in India. Write the names of the plants in your notebook.

1. Its fibers are used to make gunny sacks.
2. It furnishes oil which is exported to make soap and margarine.
3. It keeps the mills of India busy.

4. We use the fruit dried and shredded in cake or candy.

5. From the seeds, oil is pressed which is used in paint-mixing.

6. Young tender leaves are picked and dried for export.

7. We see the seeds sprinkled on rolls.

8. This grain grows in a hot, wet climate.

9. This grain grows in a cool, dry climate.

10. It furnishes sweetness for India, but there is not enough for export.

A Game about India's Geography

Write the three groups of letters in your notebook, then fill in the names as you think of them, each beginning with the letter given.

A. _ _?_ _ The province which grows tea.
B. _ _?_ _ A great river, or a seaport.
C. _ _?_ _ Another large seaport city.
D. _ _?_ _ The southern peninsular plateau of India.
E. _ _?_ _ India's highest mountain peak.

G. _ _?_ _ India's sacred river.
H. _ _?_ _ India's mountain wall.
I. _ _?_ _ A river fed by five rivers.
J. _ _?_ _ One of the five rivers.
K. _ _?_ _ A seaport city, the capital of Pakistan.

M. _ _?_ _ The coast of the coconut palms.
P. _ _?_ _ The plain of the five rivers.
S. _ _?_ _ A dry province that grows peanuts.
T. _ _?_ _ The people of southern India.

16. China: Building Anew on an Old Foundation



A Story · New Things

Wang Sen sat quietly and listened. The Wang family did not usually have many visitors. But the visitors here now had been invited because Wang Sen's father, Wang Po, had made a feast.

"It is my father's birthday," he had told his wife and children. "I will make a feast. I will invite my brother and his family from the town, and we will do honor to the grave of my father. I shall honor my father, just as I wish my sons to honor me."

When he said this, he looked at Sen and his older brothers, for in China the first duty is to obey and honor the father of the family. This is how it happened that Wang Meng, Sen's uncle, with his wife and children, came to the little village and visited the family of Wang Po. Wang Yu-lan, the oldest son of Sen's uncle, had come all the way from Peiping.

Sen enjoyed the feast. There was rice fried with bits of pork, and there were almond cakes. These were feasting dishes, just as millet and barley were food for every day. Sen also enjoyed the procession to his grandfather's grave, and he loved to watch the red candles burning around the grave. He listened eagerly to the talk, especially when his cousin Wang

Yu-lan spoke, for Yu-lan was educated. He had been a student at many schools, even at the great university at Peiping. Sen was to be a student, too, some day, and he was not happy about it. Sen's father told this to Yu-lan.

"The foolish boy does not wish to be wise," he said. "In my youth it was thought a grand thing to be educated, perhaps to become a government official. This silly Sen, he does not know what is good."

Wang Sen looked down and was silent, as was fitting for a boy in the presence of his elders. A thought came into his head. If he had a chance he would explain to Yu-lan why he did not want to be educated. Perhaps Yu-lan could help him. After a little, before they lay down to sleep, Sen knew that he would have the chance.

"Honored Uncle," said Wang Yu-lan, "if it please you, I should like to take Sen with me on a two-day journey. He can carry my pack and be of use."

"Take him and welcome," said Wang Po. "Maybe you can show him that it is a fine thing to be a government official."

Next morning the family was up early. Wang Sen's uncle and his family took the road along the river toward the town where they lived. Wang Sen and his father and brothers climbed the steep path to the fields. Wang Yu-lan, the tall cousin, came also, and Sen gladly carried his pack for him. From the hill-top they could see the rolling hills, cut up into fields, where blue-clad farmers were already at work. Wang Po and his older sons turned into the fields, but Sen and his cousin said good-bye to the others, and took another path which went between the fields across the hill toward the airport.

It was the first time Sen had followed that path, and he was filled with excitement. He had never seen the airport, but he knew it lay beyond the hill. Was Yu-lan going to the airport? Sen did not dare ask, but walked silently behind his cousin carrying his pack. It was Yu-lan who spoke first.

"Why don't you want to be educated, Sen? It is an honor."

"It is because of Lin Fu," said the boy. "Lin Fu taught me to make characters with the brush, and to read books."

"They say you read well. Your father is proud of the scrolls you have painted with beautiful characters," said Yu-lan. "Great things are before you, Sen. What is it that bothers you?"

Sen walked on in silence. Then he burst out suddenly.

"I do not want to be like Lin Fu! He is educated. Where does he go? Nowhere. He just sits all day with brushes and rolls of paper. I want to do new things."

Sen caught his breath eagerly, and then went on.

"There are some men here who work at the airport. I have heard them telling about the planes which they keep clean and shining. There are others who work for the foreigners up the river. They are building a new kind of dam with stone that pours. I like air and sunlight, Yu-lan. I like new things happening. The books of Lin Fu tell only about right and noble duties, or stories about things that happened hundreds of years ago. Yu-lan, *you* are educated, but you are not like Lin Fu."

Yu-lan turned and took the heavy pack from Sen. He did not smile, but he looked kindly down at the boy.

"It is my turn to carry now," he said. "Forget your trouble, Sen. You will never be like old Lin Fu. I brought you with me to show you the work I am doing. To me it is very interesting, and it is truly a part of the new things that are happening in China. But before I could do such work I had to learn to read and write. Then I had to go to the university

at Peiping." Yu-lan paused. "Do you know where we are going now? We are going to ride in an airplane."

They had arrived at the airport. From that moment Sen felt as if he were living in a strange new world. First there was the wide level place where the ships moved and lifted into the air. Then there was the plane he climbed up into after Yu-lan, and the friendly pilot, whose hands went easily among the many buttons and handles before him. Sen had a queer feeling inside as they rose from the ground and soared into the air. Then far below he saw the bright patchwork of the fields—green, brown, yellow, purple. The river looked like a thin silver ribbon. Yu-lan sat beside him, making figures on sheets of paper. But he had time to talk, too, and soon Sen began to understand what he was doing.

"Do you know what erosion is, Sen? It means the washing away of the land. See those ugly gullies down that hillside, where the rain water ran down? They have ruined the fields. If we do not stop erosion, more and more fields will be lost, and people will starve for lack of grain. The farmers in your village bench their fields; they level the slopes in steps. But they have not learned to keep the edges of the steps from washing."

Sen shook his head. "I know, each year some of the fields grow smaller."

"Now here are some new fields that look different," said Yu-lan. "See how the fields are narrow and run *around* the hill? Each narrow strip is planted at a different time, with a different crop. This is called strip cropping. The plants use up the rain as it runs down. This is one of the new things we are doing to keep the fields from washing away."

"Look down at the country we are crossing now," he said a few minutes later. "See how washed and gouged out it is! It's no good.



In my notebook I am writing down the places in this region which are badly washed out. We want to reclaim them, that is, make them good for crops again. We are going to plant grasses, bushes, and trees, to hold the soil with their roots. But this will take time."

Sen stared down at the rutted, gullied yel low hills. Then he turned wide eyes on his cousin as Yu-lan's pleasant voice went on. Yu-lan told him surprising things, about places in China where there were no hills, only wide flat lands. These lands were often covered by water from the rivers, said Yu-lan, and rice grew in the flooded hollows. In other parts of the country men worked hard to use every bit of ground. It was not right, then, for the people of North China to let the good soil of their fields be washed away. Those fields must be kept and made to produce as much food as possible for China's millions of people.

It was a wonderful journey. Sen would always remember the strange inn where they slept that night, and the new country they flew over on their way back to the home air base. Never had Sen dreamed of seeing so much of the world. He had known men who had journeyed this far, but it took many days. Sen had sped this whole distance like the wind, in two days. Quietly Yu-lan talked, and Sen listened with delight.



"China is a great country. More than one fifth of all the people in the world live here in our country. For all of these people the earth of China must produce food. Men who stop erosion are helping to feed the people of China. Men who build dams and irrigation canals are also helping. Who makes the plans for these new things, Wang Sen? The educated men—scientists, chemists, and engineers. What is the first thing to do? Learn to read the Chinese characters, and paint them clearly and well. Then you will go to school and study until you are ready to enter the university. You can have your part in this excellent work, Sen. Perhaps you may choose the very thing you would most like to do. I will help you. Be patient, and work hard. The time will come."

At the airport Yu-lan took another plane back to the city of Peiping. Sen walked silently home across the hill.

"Well," said Wang Po, "I hope your cousin advised you well. Are you content now to study and provide our family with an educated man?"

Sen bowed dutifully. "I am content," he said, and under his blue shirt his heart beat faster.

But of all the wonderful things he had seen and heard he said nothing. He had no words to describe them and the others would never believe him. Come what would, Wang Sen would be educated. He would have a real share in the new things that were happening in China.

China: Land of Great Rivers

China has many different kinds of land. Wang Sen lived in North China, in the hill country through which the Hwang Ho flows. But China is a very large country, and other sections are very different from North China. In order to understand what life is like in the different regions of China, look first at the map below. Study the small inset map which shows the position of China in Asia. Then notice the shape of China. It looks somewhat like a round teapot, and this is amusing, for the Chinese are very fond of tea. The border provinces of Mongolia make the lid of the teapot. The spout is the hilly Shantung Peninsula, extending eastward into the Yellow Sea. Southward, around the curving bowl of the teapot, are the East China Sea and South China Sea. The western part of China, where

China and its border lands





Boats enter the winding gorges of the Yangtze River

the handle of the teapot should be, runs up into the mountains bordering the Plateau of Tibet. In these rugged mountains rise two of China's great rivers, the Hwang Ho, or Yellow River, and the Yangtze Kiang. In the south the Si Kiang is the most important river. (Kiang is another Chinese word for river.) Trace these three long rivers on your map, one across North China, one through Central China, and one in South China.

China is larger than India, and has more people, about 470,000,000. The Chinese people are even more crowded together than those of India. This is because a large part of China is land so mountainous that it is not suitable for farming. There is not enough land that can be used to grow food for all the people. Most of the farms, villages, and towns are in the river valleys and along the fertile coastal plain. These sections have become very crowded. China has many hungry people.

How Chinese farmers work. The Chinese people have always been hard-working and inventive. They have learned how to plant almost every foot of their soil and how to use every bit of fertilizer they have in order to grow more and better crops. In India, you may remember, the farmers burn cow dung for fuel. But the Chinese farmers plow it into the ground to make the soil richer. The Chinese plant all their level land very carefully, and have also learned how to plant their hills. In some places the hillsides are terraced, and small fields rise one above another like steps. Two or three crops are raised each year wherever it is possible. Just as in India, the farmers of China usually earn a little extra by spare-time work at some trade, such as woodworking, iron casting, cloth-weaving, or basketmaking.

The farms are small, and each farmer tills his scattered fields by hand, using handmade tools. The tools and kitchen utensils are made

of iron, wood, or bamboo. Bamboo is different from wood. It is really a kind of grass, but it grows as tall as trees. The stalks are smooth and tough and often quite large. Most of us have seen bamboo furniture or fishing poles. Out of bamboo the Chinese farmer builds fences and houses, as well. He makes handles for his tools, carrying poles for heavy loads, and stilts for his children. Large bamboo stems are hollowed out for water pipes. Split bamboo is used for making mats, baskets, screens, hats, combs, chopsticks, umbrella frames, ropes, and many other things.

Rice is the most important food crop of China. In a wide area along the southern coast, and up the river valleys, wherever land can be flooded, rice is grown. Raising rice takes much careful labor. Even if the farmer has a water buffalo to drag his plow through the muddy field, the help of the whole family is needed.

First the rice grains are soaked in slightly warmed water. Then they are kept wet in a tub of straw for several days until the sprouts are an inch long. These tiny sprouts are planted close together in one corner of the field. Two weeks later, when they are six inches high, the farmer and his family transplant them. They put six plants together in each hole, until many rows of plant clusters fill the water-covered field.

Irrigation ditches are filled from a trough leading up from the canal or river. A turning wheel pushes the water up the trough behind a chain of little boards. The wheel may be turned by the stream or it may be worked by foot power. The field is kept under water until the rice blossoms. Then it is allowed to dry off, for the grain grows very quickly. Three or four weeks later it is ripe and ready to harvest. Then the farmer takes his threshing box to the field. It is a wooden box, with a frame of wooden slats on the top. On the sides a woven mat extends above the box to keep the grain from flying out.

A Chinese farmer plows the muddy soil of the irrigated rice field before planting the young rice sprouts



Then the young sprouts which have been growing close together are transplanted in clusters to the irrigated field



The stalks are cut with a scythe, and laid in bundles. Now each helper picks up several bundles together and strikes the heads against the slatted frame until the rice grains fall from the stalks into the box. In some parts of China there are other ways of threshing.

After the rice is threshed it is tossed in the air from large bamboo screens, so that the wind may carry away the chaff and straw. The rice is hulled and polished in hand mills. Then it is ready for Mother to boil in a big iron bowl on the little brick stove.

In the northern part of the country, where it is colder and drier, wheat and millet are grown rather than rice. Peanuts and sweet potatoes are common crops as well. Here the farmer often has an ox to help him to plow, or a little donkey as a faithful beast of burden.

Almost as important as rice is the soy bean. Bean sprouts are eaten as a juicy fresh vegetable. The beans are pressed to produce a useful oil. The Chinese make from the beans, also, a spicy sauce for seasoning. A favorite food is called bean curd. To make it the beans are ground in water and the juice is then drained off. This juice looks milky, and when it is heated in a certain way it curdles like sour milk. The curds are pressed into a cake, a little like cottage cheese or egg custard, and cut in slices or squares. The very poor people often have little food besides their bowl of rice or millet, and their bean-curd cakes. These are good nourishing foods, but they might taste strange to us, because the Chinese use different kinds of seasoning.

How the Chinese live. In the cities well-to-do people have walled-in courts or gardens around their homes. The houses themselves are often of brick or stone with tiled roofs, and they may have many rooms with lovely furnishings. But China is an agricultural land. Most of the people are poor, and live very simply in their farming villages. They build their houses of the material which is at hand.

After the field drains, the grain ripens and is harvested. Rice is threshed by striking off the grain against the slats of a box



As the handle moves the mill the hulls are ground off and fly through the slits while the white grain drops to the bottom





Padded clothing keeps these children warm

The houses are usually small, but the houses of many relatives may be close together, almost like one house. Where winter is cold, in the north, many people live in houses of beaten earth or sun-dried mud blocks. Roofs are often made of willow sticks plastered with clay or straw. In southern China houses are usually built of bamboo, and thickly thatched to keep out the heavy rains.

Most clothing is made of cotton cloth. This is not expensive, and the people can raise the cotton, spin it, and weave it into cloth if they wish. Men, women, and children alike wear trousers for everyday, with a jacket that comes below the waist. For cold weather, clothes are padded with soft cotton, and an extra jacket is added whenever it is needed in order to keep warm. In very cold weather a little child sometimes looks as wide as he is tall, so thickly is he padded to keep out the cold.

Even shoes are usually made of cotton cloth. Every rag is saved. Mother washes the rags and fits them together, pasting them between pieces of new cotton cloth. Many such layers are piled up to make a thick pad, which is stitched together and cut into the shape of shoe soles. The upper part of the shoes is made of cotton cloth, or, for holidays, of silk, finely embroidered. Old automobile tires are prized to make shoe soles whenever people can get them. The farmer and his family go barefoot most of the time. For rainy weather, or over stony ground, they wear shoes woven of rough straw, and these are the shoes usually worn by burden-carriers.

The Chinese have always loved colors, and have used them to mean special things. Yellow was always the color for royalty, and blue for the common people. Even today in China the greater part of the working people wear blue cotton clothes. White has always been the color for funerals and mourning, and red for holidays and weddings. Perhaps this is why firecrackers are red; the Chinese invented them, and they are always used to celebrate festivals, especially the Chinese New Year's Day.

The Chinese farmer and his family can produce most of their own food. Besides millet or rice and bean curd, they raise vegetables—onions, spinach, turnips, cabbage, squashes, peas, melons, and several kinds of potatoes. If the village is near the coast, there will often be fresh fish. The farmer may keep a pig or two, and always has a few chickens for their eggs. Once in a while a hen goes into the pot to make a holiday feast. Beef is not often seen, because a cow is too expensive to feed when land is so precious. The farmer's family cuts its small amount of pork or chicken in little pieces with vegetables so it can be eaten with chopsticks. Wealthy people can afford to

eat more pork and chicken and fish. Their food has more variety and is made tasty with the "five flavors," sweet, sour, bitter, salty, and spicy. Rich or poor, everyone in China drinks tea. Not only at mealtime, but all day long, in some manner, water is kept hot so that a cup of tea will be ready for a guest or for a thirsty person. The Chinese found out long ago that boiled water is safer for health, and the tea leaves make it pleasant to drink.

Fuel is scarce, and the Chinese use it sparingly. The brick cookstove is very small, and the cooking pans are thin, so that the rice and vegetables can be cooked quickly. Hot water for tea can be bought from a peddler who comes along the village street several times a day. In cold regions little tunnels are sometimes built from the brick cookstove to the brick bed-platform, so that the heat from the cooking fire will help to make a warm sleeping place. Other peddlers come through the village now and then, with candy or hot chestnuts, and there is a traveling shoemaker who cuts shoe soles for Mother from the thick pads of rags she has made, which are too tough for her to cut. Each village usually has a pork shop, a vegetable shop, and a drug shop, where villagers can buy the things they do not raise. Then there is the tea-house and the village well, where neighbors greet each other and exchange the bits of news, and where the children gather eagerly around the tale-teller man.

Transportation in China seems strange to us. Railroads were built in China years ago, and they connect many of the principal cities. But many more railroads are needed. There are few paved roads. In most of China, animals are not much used for transportation. Oxcarts are used in the north, but in the rest of

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This busy canal is six hundred and fifty miles long







Transportation changes slowly in China

China the burdens are usually carried by the people themselves, and millions of men earn their living this way. Wheelbarrows are often used, or heavy burdens are slung on poles carried on the shoulders of two men. People also travel in chairs swung between two poles which are carried in the same way. Men who do this heavy work are called coolies. Traffic of this kind can go along narrow paths and dirt highways or up winding mountain trails, and does not need wide, hard roads. In recent years, changes have been coming to China. The Chinese are planning automobile roads for the whole country, and road-building has begun.

The rivers and canals of China are very important for transportation. Millions of boats, large and small, are poled along these waterways, carrying people or cargoes from place to place. The Grand Canal connects the waterways of the North China Plain with the delta country of the Yangtze Kiang, which is the great coastal plain of Central China. Over much of China, boats are more common than carts. In the great harbor cities and along canals and rivers, thousands of Chinese spend their lives on little houseboats. Baby is tied to Mother's back as she rows the boat or prepares the meals. Small children often have a piece of wood fastened to them so that if they fall overboard they will float until they are picked up.

Transportation in China has been changed by the Second World War. During this war the Japanese had control of the ocean ports of China. The only route by which supplies and ammunition could be brought into China was by the famous Burma Road. This was at first a steep mountain road, little more





There human labor is cheaper than gasoline

than a trail, which wound for a thousand miles through the rugged mountains between Southern China and Burma. Under the direction of American engineers thousands of Chinese improved this road for the use of motor trucks. Today, owing to the war, the Burma Road into China and another road from Burma into India form one long, well-built highway uniting China with both Burma and India. When the Japanese blocked the Burma Road, all material had to be carried into China from India by plane. This meant a long and dangerous flight over the Himalaya Mountains, but it proved the great value of quick transportation and travel between these countries. Today airplanes are bringing changes to China. There are American, British, French, and Chinese aviation companies in China. Air lines are making the country smaller within, and they are also bringing the Chinese people closer to India, Russia, and the Pacific Islands. Turn back to page 188 and study the global air map.

The land of China is so large, and the sections of it are so different, that it will be a good idea to study only a part of it at a time. Rugged mountains and plateaus divide China into three separate regions. Each of these regions has for its center a great river valley. Suppose we start with a look at North China, the home of Wang Sen.

North China, valley of the Hwang Ho. Winters are cold and rainless in North China. Cold winds from the northwest bring dust storms over the land. Summer is hot, and southern monsoon winds from the ocean bring rain. North China is divided into two very different parts, the Great Plain along the coast in the east, and the loess hills in the west.



In the loess hills many people live in caves in the sides of the hills

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Loess is deep yellow dust brought by the northwest winds across the desert known as the Gobi from the dry steppe lands of central Asia. Through long ages the winds have carried this dust into China. It is many feet thick. The Hwang Ho and the rivers which flow into it have cut their way down through this soft dirt until they run through deep valleys. The sides of these valleys are almost straight up and down, like walls. The homes of many of the people are caves dug out of the cliff walls.

The loess soil is very fertile. Wheat and barley grow in winter in the hilltop fields. In the summer the Chinese raise cotton, millet, tobacco, and peanuts. Soybeans are another important crop. The river is too far below the fields for irrigation, and Wang Po and his neighbors must depend on rain. Only about once every three years is there plenty of rain over the whole country. Usually some sections are dry. When there is not enough rain for a good crop, food is scarce and people go hungry. In a very dry year there is famine, and hundreds of thousands of people actually starve. Many leave their homes and go to the cities to do any kind of work so they may buy food; some even become beggars.

But some years the rains are plentiful, too plentiful and too heavy. No forests cover the hills along the rivers, since all the trees were cut down long ago. When heavy rains come, the soft soil washes away and deep gullies are cut. There is a saying in Wang Po's country, "Farming is good if you can keep track of the farm." Much of the good soil is washed into the muddy tide of the Hwang Ho. No wonder it was called the *Yellow* River. China needs all the new plans and work of the soil engineers to save this fine plain country for food-growing.

The Hwang Ho carries its load of soil eastward to the Great Plain. As the river winds through the lowland it flows more slowly. Here the silt settles to the bottom of the river and builds its bed higher and higher, so that the people have built dikes to keep the Hwang Ho in its channel. But a sudden rise often breaks the dikes, and the river waters spread across the countryside. Farmers may lose their crops, their homes, and even their lives in the flood waters of the Hwang Ho. Several times the great river has changed its whole course and cut a new channel, ruining farms and destroying villages. It is easy to see why the Hwang Ho is called "China's Sorrow." Perhaps when more boys like Sen become engineers some-

thing can be done permanently to control the Hwang Ho.

The great cities of North China are on the coastal plain. Through much of the long history of China, Peiping has been the capital, and here are the beautiful buildings of the former rulers of China. Today Peiping spreads far out beyond the walled town which was the ancient capital. It has more than a million people, and is the home of a great university. The most important seaport is Tientsin, which is almost as large as Peiping. Tientsin is a short distance from the sea on the Pei Ho. This river is three hundred yards wide, and is lined with docks and wharves. There are cotton mills and other modern factories in Tientsin.

The rocky peninsula of Shantung, near the mouth of the Hwang Ho, produces silk and has deposits of coal. Fishing is a very important industry here, because fish is an important food in China. The people of North China are hard workers. The cold winters, and a diet of millet, wheat, and soy beans, have made them a sturdy race. From North China have come most of China's rulers, as we shall see when we come to China's story.

Coal mining is one of the most important industries of North China. Coal is China's most important mineral product, but most places where it is plentiful have been difficult to reach and to mine. This is because China has not had good transportation or modern mining machinery. The richest deposits are in the central part of North China, in the provinces of Shensi and Shansi. Find them on your map. This region is as rich in coal as our Pittsburgh area. But only a small amount of coal is mined here. The busiest mines are near Tientsin and in Manchuria. Coal is especially important in China because many of the forests have been used up. There is a little oil in the country, but not much of it has been produced as yet. There is also some iron.



Ancient Chinese emperors built beautiful palaces at Peiping

Central China and the Yangtze Kiang. The Yangtze River delta spreads out along the coast with a wide network of lakes, streams, and canals. The coastal plain here has a wetter climate than that of North China, and some rain falls even in winter. Also the winters are usually mild. Between the streams and canals lie flooded rice fields. Rice is the principal food grain here. Mulberry trees line the banks of the canals. This is the region which produces the most silk. Along the shore, land has been taken from the sea, as in the Netherlands, by building walls to keep back the tides. Farther back from the sea are cotton fields. Large quantities of cotton are brought to the mills at Shanghai, or piled on the docks for export.

Shanghai is not far from the mouth of the Yangtze. It is the great port of Central China. Shanghai has an old Chinese city, large foreign settlements, and a growing fringe of suburbs. During the last hundred years thousands of foreigners have settled there to conduct trade and other business. Shanghai with its suburbs is now the home of more than three million people from fifty different nations.

Oceangoing steamers go up the Yangtze to Nanking, and then on to Hankow. The Yang-

This oil well looks primitive, but it produces oil in Shensi province, North China



tze River is the great highway of Central China, and leads through a busy, crowded part of the country. To the north spread small fields that grow barley and wheat in winter and cotton in summer. The growing season is long and there is abundant rainfall. Some farmers keep water buffalo and oxen, and many people raise silkworms. South of the Yangtze is a wide plain divided by low hills into small valleys. Streams, lakes, and canals are numerous, and rains often mean floods. This is a great rice-growing country. On the slopes of the surrounding hills oilseeds are grown and tea bushes are cultivated.

Hankow stands where the Han River flows from the north into the Yangtze. Since rivers are often the main highways of China, Hankow has become a great business and banking center. Across the Han from Hankow is Hanyang, a steel-manufacturing city of smelters and foundries, because the nearby region has iron mines. On the south bank of the Yangtze, opposite the mouth of the Han River, is the city of Wuchang. The great industry of Wuchang is the manufacture of cotton, woolen, and silk cloth. These three cities are the industrial centers of Central China.

The great Red Basin of the Yangtze. West of this industrial region the Yangtze Valley grows narrower. The river channel is rocky, and the current is swift. Passengers and cargo from large ships must be shifted to smaller boats, especially built to make the voyage. Skillful boatmen pole them along between the rocks and force them up over the rapids. Other boats use oars. Teams of a hundred men plod along the riverbanks using ropes to pull the heavily loaded boats. There are also some small and sturdy steamboats which make the trip. The river flows through deep gorges. At the entrance to the Great Gorge of the Yangtze, steep rock cliffs tower up on each bank, and seem almost to meet above the narrow winding channel of the river. When boats come through the Gorge they enter the Red Basin near Chungking.

The Red Basin is very large and almost round, surrounded by mountains and hills. The floor of the Basin is hilly. It gets its name from its red sandstone rocks and cliffs. Besides Chungking there are some other large cities and many villages in the Red Basin. This is the province of Szechwan, which means "four streams." Four rivers flow through the valley and empty their waters into the Yangtze. The farthest west of these streams is the Min River. It pours its waters onto a small plain, which is very fertile. Long ago one of the rulers of this part of the country, Li Ping, invented a fine system of irrigation. His motto was "Dig the channels deep; keep the dikes low." The Min River does not carry loads of mud, as the Hwang Ho does, but every year it brings down tons of boulders, pebbles, and gravel. The people of Li Ping's time learned to dig out the loose rocks before the rains began. To this day the channels are deepened every year down to the iron markers placed by Li Ping more than 2000 years ago. Then the rising Min River flows into all the irrigating streams and canals without flooding the country. Today concrete is used for the larger dikes.

The plain of the Min River is well wooded, with fruit trees and bamboo thickets. The valleys of the other three rivers and of the Yangtze itself, are deep, narrow ravines. Their banks and slopes are terraced from top to bottom with fields. The climate is moist and warm, and the rocks drip moisture. As soon as one crop is harvested another is planted. Rice, wheat, maize, beans, sugar, and tobacco are raised. The sun seldom shines, but there is no cold weather. The summer rains are constant and heavy. There are many landslides, but the farmers put back the slipping soil at once with great labor and care.



Shanghai is a business center for many nations

Shopkeepers sell their goods along a street in old Shanghai





Much of the trade of South China goes through Hong Kong's harbor

Many Chinese live on sampans in the harbor of Hong Kong



Coal crops out on the sides of the ravines. Salt is produced from brine wells. This is an old industry, and was a very important one during the Second World War, because the seacoast was in the possession of the Japanese, and salt could no longer be obtained from sea water. Some oranges are grown in the Red Basin, and a great deal of silk is produced.

South China and the Si Kiang Valley. South China is warmer than Central China, with plenty of monsoon rains. The climate is much like that of our own Southern States. The mouth of the Si Kiang, or Canton River, is another great delta district. Here, and along other southern river valleys, rice, sugar cane, oilseeds, cotton, and tobacco are grown, and silk is produced. But only along the riverbanks is it level enough for agriculture, for South China is another hill country. In the western part live tribes of primitive people, who make their living by gathering cassia, mace, and cinnamon, and the fine woods used for making furniture. Still farther west are rugged mountains and the Yunnan Plateau. There are valuable minerals here—copper, silver, tin, tungsten, and mercury. But most of the people are farmers.

Canton is the busy port of South China. It was the old gateway to China when ships first began to sail around from the coast of India. Near the mouth of the Si Kiang is the island of Hong Kong, which was taken by Great Britain in 1841. This orderly clean city, built up by the British, has attracted thousands of Chinese. Much of the trade of South China goes through Hong Kong. It has shipbuilding yards, sugar and tobacco factories, tin refineries, and an excellent university.

The Story of China

A fourth cradle of civilization. After taking this look at China's rivers, plains, and hills, we are ready for the history of this great land and its people. China, like India, is a very old country with a long, long history. Here we find a fourth cradle of civilization. The Wei Ho is a river in North China which flows into the Hwang Ho. Find it on your map on page 352. In the valley of the Wei Ho early men learned to plant and reap, to make tools, to build homes, and to weave clothing. We do not know much about this cradleland; but scientists believe that civilized ways began here beside the Wei Ho thousands of years ago, perhaps just as early as in the other "cradle" valleys. From this little valley early civilization spread out into the long valley of the Hwang Ho, and then over the rest of the country we call China and the border lands around it.

Early China. We have read of early times in other countries where tribes fought, and the strong leaders conquered the weaker ones. The same thing happened in the land of China. During a long period, China was a feudal country, much like Europe in the Middle Ages. There were many struggles between the rulers of small states. There were barbarians to the north, who raided the settled valleys. The rulers in the valleys led their armies against these barbarians, and some of the rulers built thick walls to keep the wild tribes out of their lands.

In spite of these wars, great numbers of common people lived peacefully on the land. The farmers in the villages tilled the fields and raised grain, vegetables, and cotton. They tended silkworms, and sold the silk they spun. Skilled craftsmen wove this silk into beautiful cloth, and embroidered it with silver and gold.

But the working people did not wear the beautiful silk. They wove cotton cloth for their own clothing. In cold weather they padded their garments with soft, thick cotton, to shut out the chill winds.

In the towns merchants traded and often grew rich. They formed guilds and held festivals. There came to be some very rich people, and many very poor people. But China had no caste system like that of India. Most respected of all were the few people who had an education. Every family which could tried to send its ablest son to study under good teachers. If he did well in his studies and passed the examinations, he might become a government official.

Confucius, China's Wise Man. Like Greece and India, China had her philosophers and teachers. The most famous of these was Kung Fu Tze, whom we call Confucius. He lived and taught in China about 500 B.C., at about the same time that Gautama Buddha was teaching in India. Confucius was a great student, and collected the records, poems, and legends of China into books. Confucius was also a philosopher. He thought about everyday life, and what kind of daily living was best for people. Said Confucius, "There are Heaven, Earth, and Man. Man's place is in the middle. He should walk a middle way, and enjoy the good things of life, but expect some of the bad things as well, and not be upset when they come."

"Moderation is the best rule," said Confucius. He taught people to be obedient to their parents and their rulers, and he taught justice and kindness. He told stories of the good kings of old times, whose lives were written in the history books. These, he said, were examples for the people to follow.

Confucius lived to be a very old man, and his teachings were written down and carried far and wide. The Chinese people looked up



Confucius

to him as their wisest man. Most of the Chinese people never learned to read or write; but century after century the young men who became educated read and followed the teachings of Confucius.

The Chinese people thus learned to admire the teachings of the past. They did not think it was important or useful to try to find out new things, but were content instead with the way things had always been done. They obeyed their parents and worshiped their ancestors. Each house had a little shrine where offerings were made to those who had gone before. Every man wished to have a large family, so that many grandchildren and great-grandchildren would keep his memory and



At household shrines such as this, offerings are made to ancestors

bring offerings to his grave. We begin to see why the Chinese, although they have always been industrious, have changed their ways more slowly than some other peoples. They have looked backward, not forward. They have had philosophy and common sense, but they have had little interest in science. They have not felt until recently that it was important to work toward a different future.

One of China's first emperors. In the northwest part of the country was a state called Ch'in. The ruler of Ch'in was a powerful general, and he conquered all the surrounding states. He lived about three hundred years after Confucius. As his power grew, this ambitious ruler took the title of emperor, and all the country he ruled became known as China. He became known as Shi Huang Ti. He was an able ruler. Everywhere in his great empire he put into effect the same laws and the same system of weights and measures. This made trade grow. The same written language spread across the country. The language was spoken differently in different parts of the country, and this is still true today. But having the same written language has helped to make the Chinese feel like one people. Ideas traveled from one part of the country to another. People traveled, too, for Shi Huang Ti had roads built to the farthest parts of his empire.

Sometimes people call this emperor the builder of the Great Wall of China. Already there were walls here and there. What Shi Huang Ti did was to strengthen and lengthen these walls and join them together into one. This made the Great Wall of China more than 1400 miles long. Along the wall were forts, placed a short distance apart, guarded by soldiers. Hundreds of thousands of men were needed in building this great wall. Many lives were lost in building it, but it did keep back the barbarians of the north for a long time. Slowly these barbarian tribes began to move westward instead, pushing other peoples before them.

Asia is a vast land. The movement of these barbarian peoples took many centuries. They pressed toward Russia, and into Europe. The Teutonic tribes of Europe moved on ahead of them, across the boundaries of the Roman Empire. Do you see how China's Great Wall may have had something to do with the barbarian invasions of the Roman Empire?

Life in Old China. Protected by the Great Wall, China's people, under both weak and strong rulers, were industrious and skillful. They learned to make paper from rags

or wood. They wrote the characters of their Chinese language with brushes dipped in ink. Each character stood for a syllable with a meaning. To learn to read, a student had to memorize thousands of characters. Perhaps this was one reason why there were so few educated people. Those who did learn to write took great pride in painting the characters with beautiful brush strokes. The scrolls which held poems or sayings of the wise were often as beautiful as paintings.

The Chinese had their own style of painting; it was not like the painting of the western nations. Look at the picture on page 370 and notice how few lines the painter used and how clear and delicate the painting looks. The Chinese also made beautiful pottery. Later on they found a special clay with which to make vases and bowls. They were much thinner than those of pottery, and rang with a bell tone when touched. This ware was called porcelain. It was beautifully glazed and lovely in color and decoration.

China's Golden Age. From about 600 to 900 A.D. the rulers of China belonged to the T'ang family. This period is often called China's Golden Age. The T'angs encouraged artists and scholars. Life was peaceful and prosperous. Learning and art were highly prized, and the Chinese way of living was more peaceful and more civilized than that of Europe. This was during the period of the early Middle Ages in Europe.

China was a long distance from other civilized parts of the world, and was also shut off by deserts and mountains. But trade gets through even barriers like these, and ideas slowly spread from one country to another. Teachers from India had come into China to carry the teachings of Buddha. The educated men of China thought deeply about the ideas of Buddha, and the poor people worshiped him. They built shrines and temples to do him honor, and during this period Buddhism became the religion of most of the Chinese.



Part of the Great Wall still stands in northern China

During the Golden Age of the T'angs, printing was invented in China. Characters were carefully carved on blocks of wood. With one of these blocks a whole page could be printed over and over again. Several pages were pasted together to form a long roll or scroll. These scrolls were the first printed books of the Chinese.

The Mongol rulers of China. About three hundred years after the rule of the T'angs the barbarian tribes of Mongolia finally broke their way through the Great Wall. They were led by a powerful warrior chief called Genghis



A Chinese artist painted this landscape over seven hundred years ago

Khan. Genghis Khan first conquered the northern part of China, and then turned westward with his Mongol tribesmen, and swept across the whole of Asia.

After the death of Genghis Khan, his grandson Kublai became the Great Khan. Kublai Khan brought all China under his rule, and then set out to bind it together into a great nation. He saw that the Chinese culture was more civilized than that of the wandering Mongols. He did not try to change the Chinese, but took their customs as his own. He built fine roads and set up a postal system of swift horses. We have heard about Kublai Khan and his great capital city in our story of Marco Polo.

Trade grew rapidly under the rule of Kublai Khan. Camel caravans traveled the old Burma Road from China to Burma and India. Other caravans crossed the deserts of Mongolia and Sinkiang, and climbed the pass between the Pamirs and the Tien Shan Mountains, following the "silk road" to the countries of the Mediterranean. Ships from Persia and

Arabia came around the coast, and slow-sailing Chinese junks made their way from port to port. The map on page 137 shows you some of these trade routes by land and by sea.

The Arabs came first to buy Chinese silk, jade, and tea, but they also learned new things. They learned how the Chinese made paper, and they took this knowledge back to Spain, where the first paper in Europe was made. In the same way, you remember, the idea of block-printing was taken from China to Europe. The Arabs were interested, also, in a Chinese instrument which we call the compass. They made compasses of their own and began using them on their ships. As you learned, it was from the Arabs that the sea captains of Europe got the compass, and with it they were able to set forth across the unknown oceans of the West.

China under the Manchus. The Mongols ruled for about one hundred years. Then they were driven out, and the rulers of China were again Chinese. Then other northern warriors broke through the Great Wall to become the rulers of China. These invaders came from Manchuria, the country of the Manchus. The Manchus remained a small ruling class of nobles. The first Manchu emperor made the Chinese shave their heads and wear the queue, or pigtail. Like the Mongols, the Manchus saw that the Chinese civilization was more advanced than their own, and they too adopted Chinese customs. The Manchus ruled China for nearly three hundred years, from 1644 to 1912. The country of Manchuria, from which they came, became a part of China, and was called the Eastern Province. During this time Korea, the peninsula south of Manchuria, also became a vassal state of China. Locate these regions on your map on page 352.

What was going on in the rest of the world during these three centuries? Explorers from Europe sailed the seas and planted colonies. They traded in the ports of India and in the many islands to the south. Ships from many different countries began to swarm along the coast of China. But they were not given a warm welcome. The Chinese feared that foreign traders, backed by money and guns, would harm China and its people. The Manchu rulers, and many of the Chinese, wished China to stay just as it was.

Trade troubles and treaties. But trade meant wealth, and many Chinese merchants wished to engage in this rich foreign trade. The Portuguese were allowed to settle and trade on the island of Macao on the south coast of China. This was the beginning of a long period of quarrels and treaties, by which other countries got the right to trade in Chinese ports, and to settle their own merchants and factories there.

These foreign nations not only took Chinese territory, they also insisted on ruling it. When disputes arose, they tried people in courts of their own instead of according to Chinese law and custom. They even kept warships in China's Yangtze River. By the end of the nineteenth century many little slices of China had been taken by other countries. Find on your map the places named. The French had Indo-China to the south, and also the port of Kwangchow in South China. Great Britain had the great island harbor of Hong Kong, large settlements in Shanghai, some of the Yangtze River ports, and a navy base on the Shantung peninsula. Russia claimed the harbors of Port Arthur and Dairen. Because Russian railroads crossed Manchuria, Russia had control of this country also. Even Japan, which had learned western methods, waged a successful war with China. Japan took the island of Formosa from China, and not long afterward got possession of Korea.

All these things were hard for the Chinese to bear. They had reason to dislike the Western

nations and their ways. In 1900 some of the people of China turned on the foreigners and tried to drive them out of the country. An army made up of soldiers from different Western countries defeated the Chinese and placed heavy penalties on China.

The United States never laid claim to territory in China, although it did, like the European powers, demand special trading rights and other privileges for American citizens in China. The Chinese were required to pay a large sum of money to the nations whose property was destroyed or whose people were killed in the rebellion of 1900. Some of the money which China paid to the United States was returned by us to China, and was later used to send Chinese students to the United States. During the Second World War our country gave up all special rights which it once held in China.

China Changes

China would have to change. The young educated leaders of China knew that. Many Chinese went to study in other countries. They wished to learn modern methods of industry and transportation, and especially to gain scientific knowledge from Western countries. One of these students was Sun Yat-sen. He was the son of a farmer near Canton, in South China. Sun Yat-sen went to Hawaii to study medicine, and then returned to China to practice. He became active with other leaders in plans for the New China. The Manchu rulers tried to put a stop to their plans, and Sun Yat-sen had to flee from the country.

China became a republic. The revolt that had been started did not die out, and in 1912 the Manchu emperor was forced to give up his throne. The leaders of the revolution called their group the Kuomintang, meaning the People's Party. They declared China a republic and sent for Sun Yat-sen, who became president for a few months. For ten years there was disorder and quarreling, and no one was able to pull the quarreling parties together. However, Sun Yat-sen continued to think and write about the needs of China. He wrote several books about the ways in which China could make a better life for its people. He died in 1925.

Sun Yat-sen is the national hero of China. After his death, the people of China began to understand what a great man he was. One of his books, *The Three Principles of the People*, has served as a guide for many patriotic Chinese. The three principles of Sun Yat-sen are nationalism, democracy, and human welfare. Just what do these principles mean? China must be completely independent, and other countries must no longer interfere in its life and government; this is nationalism. China must have a government by the people and for the people; this is democracy. China must find ways for all her people to earn a good living, free from starvation and misery; this is human welfare. Sun Yat-sen was laying the foundations for a democratic China.

The needs of China. But China was not yet even a united country. Different "war lords" controlled parts of China, much as the European feudal lords controlled their lands in the Middle Ages. There was much that needed to be done. First, China must be united, and the people must work together. Second, the Chinese must be educated. Schools were needed in the villages for the younger children, and colleges, universities, and technical schools were needed for older students. The girls needed an education just as much as the boys

did. In the past the education of girls had not been considered important, and they had no truly independent lives of their own. The students should still learn the wisdom of China's great men, but they must also learn modern science—medicine, engineering, electricity. They must know what was going on in other countries.

The new China develops from the old. Changes of many kinds have been taking place in the last thirty years. Highways and railroads have begun to spread over China. Airplane travel has made China seem still smaller. Chinese cities are building modern water systems, putting in electric lights and telephones. More newspapers are printed, and hundreds of thousands of Chinese are learning to read them. Schools and colleges have been built. Educators have been planning a simpler way to write the Chinese language. They are hoping also that the people of China may all learn to speak in the same way, so they can understand each other, even if they come from different parts of the country. Great irrigation projects have been studied, and new dams are now being planned to control floods. Some of the land made useless by erosion has been planted with trees and shrubs.

Customs, too, changed after the fall of the Manchu emperors. Rich men once wore their fingernails very long to show that they did not need to work. Women had their feet bound to keep them small and dainty. These customs have been rapidly disappearing. Men and women wear modern clothes. Girls, as well as boys, go to school, and women are becoming doctors and lawyers. China has been going through a real revolution in work and way of life.

A leader of China: Chiang Kai-shek. Chiang was educated in China and in Japan, and became a strong military leader. After the death of Sun Yat-sen, he tried to unite the different groups in China under his leadership, and he became the head of the Kuomintang.



Dr. Sun Yat-sen: he gave China "The Three Principles of the People"

Nanking, in Central China, was made the capital. But China continued to be divided. A Communist party grew up in China. These Communists wanted to rule all of the country, and they fought the Kuomintang for control of the government. Also some parts of China were still under the control of the war lords.

While China was struggling to become a modern nation, Japan in 1931 seized Manchuria, the northeastern province of China. This was the first battle in the Second World War. The Kuomintang and Chiang Kai-shek continued for some years to fight the Chinese Communists. But finally Chiang made a truce with the Communists in order to use all Chinese forces against the Japanese.

In 1937 the Japanese armies from Manchuria began to invade the rest of China. They took Nanking, most of the coast, and a large part of northeast China. The Kuomin-

tang government was forced to leave Nanking. The government officials moved westward up the Yangtze River. Up the river after them went a great migration of people with their goods and their schools, fleeing from the Japanese. Through the Great Gorge into the Red Basin they moved and Chungking became the capital. Factories were taken piece by piece, by human strength and courage, all the way to the Red Basin. Here, in this rich valley, protected by its hills, China held out. Factories were built underground in great caves, because China needed munitions, weapons, and airplanes.

The system of education went right on. Whenever the Japanese enemy drew near a town which had a college, the students and their teachers escaped and hiked hundreds of miles inland to set up their school in a safer place. The universities in the Red Basin shared their buildings with the other colleges moving into the region. Instead of stopping education, the war made the Chinese even more determined to become educated. They now saw more clearly than ever the need to make their country a strong modern nation.

The Communists now control China. Warfare between the Kuomintang and the Communists began again after the defeat of Japan. In 1949 the defeat of Chiang Kai-shek's armies by the Communists forced him to resign as head of the Kuomintang and to take his followers with him to the island of Formosa. The Kuomintang had changed since the days when it followed the three principles of Sun Yat-sen. One of the reasons for the change was that some of its leaders had become more interested in riches and power than in the welfare and progress of the Chinese people.

All of China is now held by the Chinese Communists, who have brought about many changes. The head of the Communist Party that controls China is Mao Tse-tung, the son of a farmer of central China.

China's future is uncertain. The country cannot begin to be truly democratic if the power is held by generals, rich landlords, money-lenders, or a Communist dictator. There are many difficult problems to be faced, both now and in the future. The best hope lies in the courage and intelligence of the people of China.

The Border Lands of China

What happens to the people of China, their government, their freedom, and their way of life, is very important to all east Asia. Sometimes this large section has been called Greater China. It is made up of China itself and a fringe of border lands lying in a great horseshoe around the west, north, and northeast of China. The people of these border lands have customs and ways of living which are somewhat like those of the Chinese. Some of these lands are independent, and some are under the control of China or of Soviet Russia. There are six of these border regions—Tibet, Sinkiang, Outer Mongolia, Inner Mongolia, Manchuria, and Korea. Locate them on the map on page 352. Learn to pronounce their names. If you keep your bookmark at page 352, you can look back at the map often as you read about them.

Tibet is on the roof of the world. The plateau of Tibet is the highest in the world. It is a huge stretch of uneven, hilly plain almost twice as large as our big state of Texas. It is more than 15,000 feet high in the west, higher than the highest peak in our Rocky Mountains. It slopes gradually toward the



The palace and religious shrine at Lhasa, chief city of Tibet

east, where it breaks up into mountains and valleys. The whole plateau is surrounded by a wall of mountains, which shuts Tibet off by itself. Many of the great rivers of eastern Asia rise in the mountains of Tibet. Trace again on the map on page 298 the Hwang and Yangtze rivers in China and the Brahmaputra and Indus rivers in India.

The people who live here are Buddhists, and they are governed by a Buddhist priest-king, called the Dalai Lama. Many of the Tibetans become monks, and great monasteries are found throughout Tibet.

The future of Tibet is uncertain. Communist China claims the country, and in 1950 Chinese armies invaded Tibet.

Lhasa, the capital and center of religion, lies in a sheltered valley in southeastern Tibet. It is the trading center of the country and is connected by caravan routes with India and China. High on a hill in the city stands the great palace of the Dalai Lama.

Most of the people live in the lower valleys of the mountains of eastern and southern Tibet, where they raise peas, barley, and wheat. The well-to-do land owners live in large stone, brick, and mud houses built around a courtyard. The flat roofs are made of beaten earth. Farther west the country is too high for crops to ripen. Here the people are herders of sheep and goats. Most of them are nomads, wandering about with their flocks. They pasture them on the mountain slopes during the few warm months, and then when the warm season is over they drive them down into the lower valleys. These nomads live in tents woven from the hair of the yak or in simple earth huts. Yaks are the beasts of burden in Tibet. These animals are cousins of our American bison. They have thick, shaggy coats and bushy tails.



A Tibetan yak carries his owner's tent

The Tibetans trade the wool of their flocks for vegetables and other products from the lower lands, and for tea from China.

The only industries are the making of copper and iron objects and the manufacture of woolen cloth. Wool and salt are exported. Before the war a large part of the wool exported was sold to the United States to be used in making automobile rugs.

On the southern border of Tibet the high ranges of the Himalayan Mountains run northwest toward the Pamir Knot in Soviet Asia. Find the Pamirs on your map. A rough tumble of high peaks is crowded together in an area about 150 miles square. Between the peaks are little ravines and valleys, 12,000 to 14,000 feet above sea level. Icy winds sweep the peaks and the mild summer weather lasts too short a time for grain to ripen. Only hardy nomads wander through with their goats. Notice that on your map the Pamirs stand at the corner of four countries: Afghanistan, India, the Soviet Union, and China. The region called Turkestan lies on the north, partly in the Soviet Union and partly in China.

Chinese Turkestan is called Sinkiang. This is the borderland north of Tibet, a long desert running east and west, enclosed on three sides by mountains. The only low level caravan routes from China westward to Russia and southwestward to the Mediterranean pass through this desert land of Sinkiang. Marco Polo came through this region on his way to China.

The desert is filled with white sand made of broken rock from the mountains, ground fine by wind and water. It is not a bad soil for growing crops, but there is little rain. Almost no moisture gets over the mountains to this pocket in central Asia. Rivers which flow into it from the mountains soon sink into the sand and disappear. Yet millions of people live here. Along the streams are towns, surrounded by farms, with terraced fields of wheat, maize, and cotton. They form green oases along the lowest slopes of the mountains. There are winding lanes of poplars and willows, and orchards of fruit trees. All around the oases are sand dunes, which shift with the wind, and much of the time a haze of dust hides the mountains.

In the east, toward China, there is a little more rain, enough for some crops to be raised without irrigation.

Sinkiang is a province of the Chinese Republic. In the last few years part of the province has come under Russian control. If you look at the map you will see that on the northeast the desert of Sinkiang joins the great Gobi desert of Mongolia.

Mongolia is bleak and bare. It is more than a third as large as the United States. On the north stretches Siberian Russia. On the south is China. The eastern and southern fringes are rolling pasture lands. The center is the wide Gobi, with a floor mostly of stones instead of sand. Summer in Mongolia is short and hot, and winter is bitter cold, as cold as forty or fifty degrees below zero.

The people of Mongolia are chiefly nomad shepherd tribes. They live by wandering over the plains with their herds of cattle, sheep, camels, and horses. From early summer to autumn the Gobi is covered by short grass on which the Mongols pasture their flocks. Their sheep furnish them with meat and milk, skins for clothing, and wool for their round, dark, felt tents. These tents have cone-shaped roofs and are made by tying strips of felt over a lattice-like framework of wood. Because these tents are low and round they can stand against the strong winds that sweep the plains. Sometimes these round felt tents are replaced by ordinary cloth tents during the summer.

Horses, camels, and cattle are used for transportation. The cattle and camels carry the framework and covering of the tents and other goods which the herdsmen take with them as they move from one camp to another. Often the cattle or camels are harnessed to two-wheeled carts which carry the tents and household furnishings.

Most of the water for drinking comes from deep wells. Here camel caravans stop to rest and drink. Around some of these wells tent villages have grown up. However, water is so scarce that the chief drink of Mongolia is a mixture of sour milk, tea, and butter.

These Mongols are Buddhists like the people of Tibet, and the Dalai Lama of Tibet is also the head of their church. As in Tibet many men become priests and live in monasteries.

The largest section of Mongolia is called Outer Mongolia. It borders Siberia in the north. The Gobi is in the southern part, and in the north the land becomes hilly. Here there are some stretches of evergreen forests where the people are hunters as well as shepherds. The mountains are rich in minerals, and some gold and coal is mined. The Mongolian People's Republic was formed here in 1924, but was not fully independent of China until the Second World War. Russia has started factories in a few towns. Also motor roads and an airline connect the largest town, Ulan Bator, with Siberia. The country trades with the U.S.S.R. Wools and hides are exported to the U.S.S.R. in exchange for manufactured goods.

Inner Mongolia contains three Chinese provinces. Wool from the flocks and linseed



Tents stand beside modern buildings in the capital of Outer Mongolia

from the farms in the east are sent to north China to be traded for manufactured goods and other products such as tea and flour. This is the "lid of the teapot," and has been for some years under the control of the Chinese Communists.

Manchuria is a rolling plain surrounded by uplands and mountains. Manchuria has a large interior plain about twice the size of the state of Washington. Except for three narrow gaps this plain is surrounded by mountains. The largest gap is in the south where the plain opens to the sea. Many of Manchuria's cities are in the southern part of this plain. The mountains are covered with forests of fine timber. Under the lower hills and part of the central plain are found coal and iron.

Central Manchuria is in some ways like the great central plains of the United States. Wheat, corn, millet, and rice grow there. The rice is upland rice, which grows in dry fields instead of in water. Another grain crop is kaoliang, a plant which provides an important food for both people and animals. The most important crop of Manchuria is the soybean. You remember that soybeans can be used for many things. They can be cooked as vegetables, dried, or roasted. They are used to make breakfast foods, sauces, or a kind of a milk which can be turned into cheese. This cheese, called *casein*, is used in the manufacturing of plastic articles. The oil from the beans is used in making soap, paint, celluloid, explosives, and printer's ink. The beans are exported from the port of Dairen to China and Japan. The oil is shipped to America and Europe.

During the years that the Manchus ruled China few Chinese were allowed to enter Manchuria. When the Manchus were overthrown thousands of Chinese moved in, setting up farms on the fertile plain. Now most of the people of Manchuria are Chinese. Before the Chinese came in it was a country of wandering herdsmen. Now it is a land of prosperous farms and growing industry. This is the only part of China which raises more food than it needs.

Mukden, the largest city, is an important manufacturing center. Its factories produce woolen carpets, metal products, and airplanes, and it has great grain, bean-oil, and cotton mills. Manchuria looks much like sections of north China, except that the farms are larger and the people more prosperous.

The Japanese held Manchuria for fourteen years. During this time they made the most of the soybean industry. They also mined and exported coal and iron, and manufactured salt from the sea water along the coast. Manchuria was freed from Japan after the Second World War, and was returned to China. The Chinese Communists are now in control. The war with Japan and the civil war in China have caused a great deal of damage which will take some years to repair. The U.S.S.R. would like to have the port of Dairen. We can only wait and see what happens in Manchuria.

Southeast of Manchuria is the peninsula of Korea. West of Korea is the Yellow Sea, and to the east is the Sea of Japan. To the north are Manchuria and the U.S.S.R., and the tip of the peninsula is 110 miles from the islands of Japan.

Korea is a small country, rough and mountainous, with a temperate, rather cool climate, and spring and summer rains. Grains, vegetables, and fruits grow well in the fertile soils. In the south the land is lower and wetter. Here a great deal of rice is grown, as well as wheat, barley, soybeans, tobacco, and cotton. In the north many forests remain, but the hills in the central and southern part are almost bare of trees. Korea's hills are rich in minerals: iron, coal, gold, copper, tungsten, and zinc.

Between the mountains are small plains and river valleys where most of the people live. Most Koreans are farmers and most of the farms are small. Houses are huts with mud walls and thatched roofs. There is little furniture. Cushions are used instead of chairs, and beds are spread on the floor. The windows are of oiled paper. The floors of the houses are warmed by the heat and smoke of the kitchen fires. Before the heat and smoke go out

An experiment station in Manchuria





A street in Seoul, the capital of Korea

through the chimney, they go through passages under the floors. These raised floors are made of stone slabs which heat easily and hold the heat.

While Koreans in the cities wear modern clothes, many people still wear the loose white costumes that look much like pajamas. The men wear long white robes over short jackets and loose trousers. The women wear full skirts and short jackets.

Korea was for a long time a buffer state between Japan and China, but remained independent, at least in name, until it was taken by Japan in 1910. Under Japan manufacturing and mining were developed. The chief industry is the manufacture of cotton goods, and metals and ores are the most important exports. Seoul, the capital and largest city, is a great industrial center.

Japan held Korea until Japan was defeated in the Second World War. After the war the U.S.S.R. took control of the northern half of the country and the United States controlled the southern half. The Koreans were promised their independence as soon as they were ready for it. By the end of 1948 both the United States and the U.S.S.R. had given up their control of the two sections. The southern Koreans set up a republic, while the northern Koreans set up a communist form of government. But the Communists claimed the whole country, and in July of 1950 the armies of northern Korea invaded the south. American soldiers, under the United Nations, came to the aid of South Korea. When victory seemed certain, hordes of Chinese soldiers joined the North Koreans to fight the United Nations armies.

Study Questions

1. What are the three great river systems of China?

2. What kind of climate do we find in North China, and what crops are raised?

3. Where is the richest coal-mining district?

4. What kind of climate has the Yangtze delta, and what is the chief food raised there?

5. Where are the large industrial centers of Central China?

6. What can you tell about the climate and products of the Red Basin?

7. What kind of climate has South China, and what crops are raised?

8. Name the three great ports of China.

9. What inventions did the Arabs learn about from the Chinese?

10. Who were the Manchus?

11. How did foreign trade bring trouble to China?

12. Who was Sun Yat-sen, and what was his plan for China?

13. What are the six border lands which surround China, on the west, north, and northeast?

Progress for China

1. What three freedoms for China do you think Sun Yat-sen had in mind when he wrote *The Three Principles of the People*?

2. How can modern engineering help solve one of China's problems? How can railroads help? How can modern industries help?

3. If China's government becomes settled and modern industries increase, what changes might begin to take place in the border countries of Sinkiang and Tibet?

Class Activities

1. See how many different samples of Chinese products you can bring to school. If you live near a large city it may be possible for you to locate a Chinese store and get some of the vegetables Chinese like, such as bamboo sprouts or water chestnuts.

2. Choose a committee from the class to find out where you can see some Chinese paintings, embroideries, jewelry, fans, or porcelains. Inquire at the library or museum, or from people who might own them. Good pictures of these things would be next best. If you know anyone who has traveled in China, ask that person to tell the class about the country.

3. Make a time chart for China as you did for India. What links can you find connecting China with other countries we have studied?

4. Keep a scrapbook of news clippings of China as you are doing for India. You can add to this by pasting in interesting pictures of China from magazines. Information on Korea can also be included.

5. From the Chinese came two inventions which had a great deal to do with modern civilization: the compass and printing. Let two members of the class debate which has been the most valuable.

Match the Columns

Copy in your notebook the numbered names from the first column. After each one write the letter of the matching word or phrase in the other column. When you are sure you have the letters correctly placed, copy the full answer.

1. Shanghai	*a.* Great Britain
2. Hwang Ho	*b.* Port of South China
3. Chungking	*c.* The Great Wall
4. Shantung Peninsula	*d.* Marco Polo
5. Li Ping	*e.* Steel manufacturing
6. Hong Kong	*f.* "China's Sorrow"
7. Hanyang	*g.* China's Golden Age
8. Kublai Khan	*h.* Moderation
9. Sun Yat-sen	*i.* China's "cradle land"
10. Wei Ho	*j.* Great port of Central China
11. Canton	*k.* "Dig the channels deep"
12. Shensi and Shansi	*l.* Silk production
13. The T'angs	*m.* *The Three Principles of the People*
14. Confucius	*n.* Coal production
15. Shi Huang Ti	*o.* The Red Basin

17. Japan: Land of the Rising Sun



A Story · Rain on the Leaves

Kiku woke up, turned over on her sleeping mat, and blinked her eyes. The window papers were dim outlines against the night. The room was quiet except for a soft pattering rustle like very gentle rain. But it was not rain. It was only the familiar sound of the silkworms nibbling leaves. In June that sound filled all the cottages of the village. Every farmer raised silkworms, some many, some only a few.

When Kiku's eyes grew accustomed to the darkness, she moved quietly about, listening to her mother's soft footsteps in the next room. Only Kiku and her mother were awake. They had work to do. The silkworms were now eating busily and growing quickly. They must be fed often, five or six times through the day and twice during the night.

In the corner stood a tall jar of branches of mulberry trees. Kiku broke off twigs and small branches of fresh green leaves until her hands were full. In an alcove stood the trays of silkworms, one above another in a bamboo

frame. One at a time, Kiku drew each tray part way out and laid fresh leaves across the top. She could see the movement of the worms among them. Gentle creatures they were, clean and dainty, but always hungry.

It was hard work, but Kiku liked taking care of silkworms. As long as she could remember she had helped to gather leaves for them. But this was the first year she had taken care of a whole frame of trays. It made her feel grown up. She meant to do every single thing herself for her trays of worms. Sleepily she yawned and stretched out again on her mat.

"If Hanako goes to the city, you must do her work here," her father had said. Hanako was sixteen. She had gone to work in the silk factory. She would have much to tell when she came home. Now Kiku was her mother's helper with the silkworms while her father and the boys worked in the fields.

The next time Kiku woke, the window papers were turning white. Her mother slid back the wall panel.

"Hurry, Kiku, it is raining," she said. "We must gather all the leaves we can as soon as possible."

Sure enough. Above the rustling of the worms came the sharp patter of a shower. It meant work. She wrapped a coarse kimono over her regular clothing and stopped at the door to slip her feet into wooden clogs. With a large basket over each arm she trotted along the path behind her mother. They could see other women hurrying, too. The mulberry trees, short and spreading, like bushes, lined the banks between the rice fields. The green of their leaves looked lovely in the rain. Mother and daughter filled two baskets with branches, and Kiku ran with these to the cottage. Back and forth she went until they had brought almost enough leaves for the day.

The leafy branches were shaken to free them from moisture. Then some of them were hung on cords stretched overhead in the kitchen. Others were placed in jars of water to keep fresh until they were needed. The leaves must be fresh, but not wet, for damp leaves would stick together and turn sour. Then the worms might get sick.

Kiku worked cheerfully at her daily task. She drew one tray at a time from the frame. Carefully she lifted the green leaves to which the worms were clinging, and laid them on a fresh mat. The old mat she took out of the tray, and brushed the stems and waste into a box, to be used as fertilizer. Then she laid the fresh mat, which held the nibbling worms, on the tray, and covered it with fresh leaves. She slid the tray back into the frame.

Kiku's mother was busy with the same kind



of work. The screens which divided the house into rooms were removed. Now both Kiku and her mother were at work in one big room. As they worked, Kiku's mother talked.

"When I was a girl my father raised a great many silkworms. The village where we lived was farther north. Groves of mulberry trees grew along the hillside. It was colder there. Sometimes it froze in spring after the young leaves came, when the worms were ready to hatch. I remember one very cold spring. If a freeze came in the night, a village watchman set off rockets. *Din, den, don!* They woke us out of sleep. Father and his helpers hurried to their grove to keep the leaves from being frosted. They set fire to piles of rice straw along the edge of the grove. The warm air and billowing smoke prevented the frost from touching the leaves. But everyone was not so lucky. Many people lost their leaves and had to buy some from other farmers. Leaves became expensive. Some people sold their worms. Father bought the worms of many of his neighbors."

"Did you help with the worms, Mother?" asked Kiku.

"Yes. All of us worked together, although there were many hired helpers. We did not sell the cocoons to one big factory, the way we do now. When the cocoons were ready, buyers came to the village market place. There would be women and children with basketfuls, and raisers, like my father, with so many cocoons that it would take hours to weigh them."

"I'm glad it does not freeze here," said Kiku. "Rain makes our work hard enough."

"You are a good worker, Kiku San," said her mother. "I shall tell your father so."

When her father came from the wet rice fields he heard about the work of the rainy day. He saw the worms nibbling busily on the leaves, which were just right, neither too wet nor too dry.

"O-heh," said her father. "You will be glad, Kiku San, you will have many cocoons. When they are sold you shall have some of the money. Think what you will buy."

Kiku knew. Stretching out on her sleeping mat she planned it. She would buy a new kimono, soft, cool, green, the color of mulberry leaves in the rain, and an *obi* of silk brocade to go around her waist. Then Kiku fell fast asleep.

Land of the Rising Sun

The islands of Japan. Kiku was a little Japanese girl. Now we are going to study her country. The islands of Japan lie east of the Asiatic mainland, in the Pacific Ocean. The Japanese call their country Nippon, which means "sunrise land." There are more than 4000 islands, but most of them are very small, hardly more than the tops of mountain peaks rising above the ocean. Turn to the large map of Asia on page 298 and find the four large islands bordering the Sea of Japan. From them, chains of small islands run north and south. See if you can locate the Japanese islands on the globe picture of the Eastern Hemisphere on page 18. From these views do you see why the Japanese people call their country the "Land of the Rising Sun"?

Now turn to the close-up map of Japan on page 385. Look carefully at the four large islands. Their area is about equal to that of our state of California, and they are the home of about 70,000,000 people. The largest island

is Honshu. It is a long island shaped like an irregular crescent. Near the southern end of Honshu lies the island of Kyushu. With Honshu it forms a large bay. In the center of the bay is the island of Shikoku, which shuts off the bay from the open ocean and turns it into an inland sea 250 miles long. The inland sea contains beautiful islands, winding channels, fine natural harbors, and room for many ships to lie at anchor. Its shores are lined with busy cities and towns. At its eastern end are the twin seaports of Kobe and Osaka, both great manufacturing cities. Near the southeastern corner of the island of Honshu lies Tokyo Bay, with Tokyo, the capital of Japan, and Yokohama, the greatest seaport. Near the northern end of Honshu lies the large island of Hokkaido.

Summer and winter in Japan. Japan lies between 30° and 50° north latitude. But in Japan, as in Great Britain, winds and ocean currents make the climate. The monsoon brings the "plum rains" in June, and another season of rains in September. A warm current from the south washes along the shores of the islands. This makes mild winters and hot summers on the southern and southeastern coasts and in the region of the Inland Sea. The island of Hokkaido is much cooler, not only because it is farther north, but because of a cold current from the Sea of Okhotsk. Northern Japan has cold winters, and the east coast is dry. Winds blowing from the Sea of Japan bring rain, snow, and fog to the west coast in winter, and heavier snows to the higher regions. People who live in the mountain villages put wooden "snow roofs" over their sidewalks in the fall, so that they will not be snowed in through the winter. Oiled paper windows let in the pale snow light. Along these roofed-in sidewalks the children go to school, crossing the streets in tunnels under the snow. But in Tokyo there are only light flurries of snow which melt almost as soon as they fall.



The islands of Japan

Japan is a mountainous land. Only about one sixth of it is level enough for cultivation. More than half of the country is forest-covered, and these forests are valuable. They provide timber for building, firewood for cooking, charcoal for heating, and bamboo which has thousands of uses. Japan has taken good care of the forests, and when trees are removed others are planted; but still Japan must import timber. Wood is the best building material for Japan. It is not expensive and can be quickly and easily replaced if buildings are destroyed. The Japanese have always had to think of this, for destruction comes often. The mountains which make the island chain contain many volcanoes, and many of them are still active. No one knows when an eruption may take place. Japan is also a land of earthquakes. Slight quakes are frequent, and there have been some severe ones. In 1923 a hard shock caused great damage to the cities of Tokyo and Yokohama, and more than 100,000 people

were killed. There was another big quake in 1946 but the loss of life was not nearly so great.

The Japanese have learned to guard against the dangers and overcome the difficulties of their rugged country. They have had to work hard to raise food for their increasing numbers. They build carefully for safety. Tall buildings in the large cities are constructed of concrete over steel frames, and these stand securely through earthquakes.

Living and Working in Nippon

The Japanese at home. Outdoors the Japanese wear flat wooden sandals called clogs, fastened by a strap between the large toe and the other toes. Stockings are made like mittens, with a division for the big toe so that the strap can go in place. The Japanese remove their clogs at the "shoe-off" place beside the front door when they enter a house.

Inside a Japanese house at tea time



Most Japanese dwelling houses are built of wooden beams and posts, with sloping thatched roofs. Porches open on gardens, and can be closed by sliding wooden walls at night. The houses are divided into rooms by screens of bamboo and paper. The screens slide along grooves in the floor, and can be pushed aside very easily to make one large room. These houses are airy and pleasant. Most windows are made of paper, which lets in a soft light without glare. But, of course, you cannot see through these windows. There is little furniture. The floor is covered with mats of woven straw an inch or two thick. This makes a soft flooring which the legs of furniture would spoil. Cushions instead of chairs are used for seats. The beds are quilted mats spread on the floor. They are folded up in the daytime and placed in a cupboard out of sight. Meals are served on trays with legs. These look like tiny tables only a foot high, and there is one for each person.

Rooms are easily added to these houses. Wealthy people have larger houses, more spacious gardens, and many servants, but they use little more furniture in their homes than the poor do. Their cushions are made of finer materials, their tables and vases are more beautiful, and the hanging-picture scrolls may be painted on fine silk by a famous artist. Only a few scrolls are used at one time. The Japanese believe that crowded things are not beautiful and that the display of wealth is bad taste.



Farmers near Kyoto prepare their land for crops

Farming in Japan is much as it was two hundred years ago. The farmer is usually poor. His farm is only two or three acres, his implements are crude, and he has few animals. He usually has a large family and trains his children to help in the fields. Even a five-year-old can keep the birds from eating the ripening grain. The child sits in a little wooden shelter in a tree. Across the field are strung cords to which fluttering papers are tied. If a bird alights, the child jerks one of the strings and scares the thief away. In this hard way he learns that every kernel of grain is precious. There is little waste in Japan.

Grain is planted wherever there is room for a flat field. Rice grows well in the warm damp climate of southern Japan. Wheat, barley, and millet are raised in the cool regions farther north. Most of the land fit for farming is found on the coastal plains of the islands. These plains are narrow, and are cut into small areas by rocky headlands, but they are carefully cultivated. Other small fields fit into valley pockets between hills. On steep, rough slopes tea bushes are planted. Tea plants like plenty of rain, but they must not stand in the water. They require much care, for the young leaves must be gathered many times each season, as in the tea country of India.

Farmers also have vegetable gardens, for the Japanese eat many vegetables. They rarely have meat, for the country does not produce enough food, in addition to food for its people, to raise animals. Fish are plentiful, and fishing fleets scour the sea for hundreds of miles to supply fish to the city markets. Fishing is one of Japan's chief industries. Japanese farmers, like the Chinese, use on the land every bit of fertilizer they can find: manure, wood ashes, rice bran, and the waste from cleaning fish.



The silkworm eats leaves for about five weeks before it spins a cocoon

In Hokkaido, the northern island, the farms are larger, and some American farm implements are used—even a few harvesters and tractors. Hokkaido is not so crowded as Honshu and the southern islands, partly because many Japanese do not like the cold winters of Hokkaido. But now that Korea and Manchuria no longer belong to Japan, perhaps the population of Hokkaido will increase.

Silkworms are important in Japan. The great silk-producing region is central Honshu, west of Tokyo and Yokohama. Almost all farm families have a few mulberry trees, and tend some frames of these little silk-spinners, just as Kiku's family did. In some districts there are whole villages where all the people are engaged in the silk industry. Some sell their cocoons; some reel off the silk themselves, make thread, and weave silk cloth. Silk production has been one of the most important industries of Japan. The pictures on

After the cocoons soak in water a girl winds several threads together on a reel



After being washed and put back on reels, the thread is wound onto spools



these pages will show you just how silk is made, from fresh mulberry leaves to shining thread and fabric.

The forests help the farmer. If the farmer cannot support his family from his tiny farm, he may try making articles to sell from materials he finds in the forests which cover the hills. From wood he makes chopsticks, boxes carefully fitted together, and little bowls and vases for the beautiful lacquer ware of Japan. Lacquer is a hard natural varnish made from the sap of a tree grown for the purpose in northern Japan. Boxes, dishes, and other small articles are made of wood which is almost as thin as an eggshell. These are covered with many coats of this fine hard lacquer, often beautifully decorated with designs in gold and silver.

Of bamboo the farmer makes many things, from bridges and buildings to baskets, pipestems, hairpins, and bottles. Like the Chinese farmer, he finds these tough smooth stalks very convenient. Bamboo is as useful in both China and Japan as the date palm is in Iraq, or the coconut palm in southern India.

The ancient Japanese religion is Shinto. It is a worship of many gods—gods of the mountains, the winds, the trees, and streams. Most important is the Sun Goddess, whose emblem, the rising sun, adorns the flag of Japan. Among the gods of Shinto are the god of the fields, the god of the silkworms, and the gods of the household. Like the Chinese, the Japanese worship their own ancestors, who, they believe, have joined the gods in a life beyond this earthly one.

According to a legend, the first ruler of Japan was descended from the Sun Goddess. For this reason it became the custom for the Japanese to worship their emperor as one of the gods. After the Second World War, however, this worship of the emperor was stopped.

This machine winds together the threads from several spools to make stronger thread



The girl's kimono may have been made from the cloth woven on this machine





Fisher folk mend their nets on the beach; Mount Fuji is beyond

The emperor of Japan is known as the *mikado*, which means "exalted gate."

The people of Japan are beauty-loving. They love their mountains. Most of all they love the snow-crowned Fujiyama, sacred Fuji Mountain. Fujiyama is the highest peak in Japan. It is seen in many Japanese pictures and is often called Fujisan, meaning "beloved Fuji." The Japanese love waterfalls and streams, the clouds, the full moon, trees and flowers and rocks. Like the Chinese they paint scroll pictures of these things to hang on their walls, and they make poems about them. Even the humblest home has its small garden with carefully placed stone, curved dwarf trees, and always water, a tiny lake or stream. The everyday speech of the Japanese is full of words which remind us of beautiful things.

The Japanese people. Scientists think that the ancestors of the Japanese people came from the mainland of Asia. About the year 600 A.D. records began to be kept. We know that Buddhist teachers came to Japan from China and Korea, and Buddhism began to spread. Many families added a Buddhist shrine to their homes, although they kept their old Shinto shrine as well. This is true of the Japanese people today. Many accept the teachings of Buddha, and yet at the same time continue to follow the customs and ceremonies of Shinto. Silkworm breeding, weaving, and pottery making were brought to Japan from Korea along with Buddhism. From China came the learning and art of the Golden Age of the T'angs. The Japanese began to paint scroll pictures for their walls. They learned to make scroll books, and to write, with brushes, the characters of their language. Japanese students went to China to learn from this country which already had an old civilization. You can see why much of the Japanese culture is like that of the Chinese. Here is another good example of ideas and customs passing from one people to another.

Feudal Japan. We think of feudalism as part of the Middle Ages hundreds of years ago, but Japan remained feudal in many ways until our own times. In early times all the Japanese, from the princes down to the poorest farmers, gave loyalty and obedience to the emperor. He was called the *Tenno*, meaning Heavenly King. He governed by means of a great code of laws, which set forth all duties of officials, salaries, taxes, management of land, and social customs of the people. The *Tenno* was assisted by an official called the *shogun*. This title meant that he was a military dictator. At first both title and power were granted to some great general only for a time of special danger, as in early Rome. But one shogun was so great a leader that he received the title for life, and was allowed to choose the shogun who was to follow him. From that time on for nearly seven hundred years the real ruler of Japan was the shogun. The emperor lived in a guarded palace and was worshiped as head of the Shinto religion.

The customs of Japan were much like those of the European feudal countries we have studied. Powerful princes ruled over large domains and sometimes fought each other with their own armies. Under the princes were lesser nobles, called the *samurai*. They were the landowners, some richer than others, but all proud, and all sworn to follow *bushido*.

This great bronze statue of Buddha sits in a valley shaded by trees





Part of a famous Japanese scroll painting

Bushido is a set of rules somewhat like the rules which the knights of Europe followed. According to bushido the samurai must be brave, polite, kind to the poor, loyal to the overlord, and very calm. It is improper to show either grief or joy. Boys and girls were trained, as were the Spartan children of old, to hide their feelings under quiet manners and to endure hardship without a murmur. This made the Japanese fearless and obedient. So important was loyalty and obedience that a member of the samurai would kill himself if disgraced by failure to do his duty. This custom has been followed in Japan up to our own day.

Bushido has rules about polite conduct and words of greeting, correct clothes and how to put them on, proper food to serve, and bowing and saluting. Life among the noble and wealthy became graceful and beautiful following a careful pattern. But the poor were miserable, just as in other feudal countries. They worked early and late, even the very young children, and often they went hungry.

How Japan shut the door to foreigners. During Japan's feudal age came the great time of European exploration which we have studied. The Western nations sent their ships all over the world. The seas became highways on which goods and ideas went from country to country. Portuguese merchants came to Japan, followed by the Dutch and traders from other countries. But reports reached Japan from India and the islands to the south, of the way that men from Western countries had taken possession of these lands. Finally the leaders of Japan made a proclamation which banished foreign teachers and traders. The harbors were closed to foreign trade. Japanese people were forbidden to leave the

country, and by 1640 Japan was shut away from the rest of the world. The Japanese heard nothing of all the new discoveries of science and industry which were changing other countries.

How the door was opened. More than two hundred years passed. One July day in 1853 four ships steamed into Tokyo Bay, puffing black smoke and moving without sails. Admiral Perry had come from the United States to make a trade treaty with Japan. He stayed only a few days, and promised to return. The Japanese rulers were terrified. Never had they dreamed of such ships, such guns, and such power. When the Admiral returned with still more ships the treaty was signed. It gave American ships the right to stop in Japan for supplies, and to trade in two ports. After this Japan made treaties with other countries. Japan's door was open.

The next fifteen years were troubled ones for Japan. Her leaders had to decide what to do. Some of these samurai felt that foreign nations might conquer Japan unless it, too, became strong. They forced the shogun to give up his power, and made the emperor once more the head of the government.

How Japan changed. The emperor was a young man. He took the name of Meiji Tenno, which means "enlightened emperor." This young ruler meant to use all the knowledge he could gain to make Japan strong. Orders were placed in England for warships. American advisers were consulted about education. Scientists were brought from many countries to teach medicine, engineering, and agriculture. Japan began to build up modern industry. People of all classes, not just the samurai and their followers, were drafted and trained to make a large army. A parliament was formed.

But none of these changes went very deep. The emperor made the laws and directed the government. But the army and navy were controlled by powerful nobles. By keeping control of the new army and the growing navy, these nobles could often decide what the government of Japan would do. This is what we mean when we say that Japan was under the rule of the military leaders.

These leaders were not interested in improving agriculture or in helping the peasant farmers to a better way of life. They wanted a powerful army and navy. They built factories because industry would bring them wealth. Japan did not have enough coal, iron, and oil for large industries. The military leaders saw that European nations had gained raw materials by seizing control of colonies in every part of the world. They planned to make Japan a great empire in the same way. They took the island of Formosa from China, and half of Sakhalin Island, which is north of Japan, from Russia. They took possession of Korea, and during the First World War they seized Germany's territory in China. After the war Japan was given Germany's Pacific islands as a mandate. At once Japan's military leaders began to turn these islands into naval and air bases.

The changes inside Japan did not bring a better life to the common people. They were not allowed to know what was going on in the world outside Japan. They were taught to run machines, but not to use their minds. They worked just as hard in the factories as they had in the fields, and for very low wages. Japan's people had modern hands but feudal minds.

How the Second World War weakened feudalism in Japan. The nineteen-thirties brought hard times to all countries. In Japan there was hunger and dissatisfaction and talk of revolution among the people. They were beginning to say that they, too, had rights. The military leaders decided that it was time for a war. In this way they hoped to keep the



A farmer and his wife pump water to irrigate a rice field

people quiet and united, and to gain the rich territories they wanted Japan to own. The Japanese army attacked the Chinese troops in Manchuria, and seized control of that part of China. The Japanese military leaders next tried to capture the city of Shanghai. The Chinese fought stubbornly and held the city for a month, but the Japanese finally captured it. Japanese armies pushed farther into China. They took possession of a large part of North China, and conquered one after another of China's ports and great cities. It was at this time that the government of China fled from Nanking up the Yangtze River into the Red Basin, as we read in the story of China. The Japanese attack on Manchuria was really the beginning of the Second World War. When Mussolini, dictator of Italy, and Hitler, dictator of Germany, united their forces to conquer Europe, Japan became an ally of these nations.

The United States did not like Japan's attack on China or her attempt to win an empire. In 1941 the Japanese suddenly bombed a United States fleet at its base in Pearl Harbor, Hawaii. Japanese troops landed in French Indo-China and in the Philippines and many other islands. But the feudal lords of Japan brought a heavy punishment on themselves. The growing forces of the United States and her allies were too much for Japan. Japanese soldiers were driven from the islands they had taken, and the Japanese navy was crushed. Finally two Japanese cities were almost totally destroyed by two atomic bombs. This new, powerful, and deadly weapon helped to end the war. Japan had to give up all her conquered territory. American and other allied troops were sent into Japan to keep order.

Democracy for Japan? Under the direction of the United Nations a real change may be beginning for Japan, a change in her way of life. The army has been disbanded, and the military leaders have lost all power. The people are being encouraged to think and talk about the government of their country. They now have some chance to learn what democratic ways can mean: education, co-operation, the right to govern themselves, and a chance for a better life for every man, woman, and child.

How will the Japanese use this opportunity? What kind of government will they choose? How will they improve conditions in their country? How will they provide enough food for their millions? These questions cannot be answered at once. We must wait and see. Trade should help Japan to find her place in

the modern world, under new leaders chosen by the people, leaders who will plan more wisely than the old ones did. Perhaps the "sunrise land" will see the dawning of a day of new freedom and opportunity.

Study Questions

1. Where are the islands of Japan and what are the four largest of them?
2. How do winds and ocean currents determine the climate of Japan?
3. How does the Japanese farmer cultivate his fields and what is raised?
4. What other industry provides food?
5. How is silk produced?
6. What forest products do the Japanese make?
7. What can you tell about the ancient religion of Japan?
8. How did Buddhism reach Japan?
9. Are the rules of bushido like our rules of courtesy? How are they different?
10. When and why did the Japanese shut the door to foreigners?
11. How was Japan opened to foreign trade?
12. In what ways did Japan become modern?

Interesting Things to Do

1. Make a collection of articles made in Japan. Look for things made of wood, paper, or bamboo, such as paper lanterns, fans, small toys, party favors, and lacquered boxes.
2. Many people enjoy making a small Japanese garden for table or window sill. Perhaps you can make one for the schoolroom. Choose a glass or pottery dish of suitable shape and size. Use rocks and sand to form the hills. Tiny bridges, houses, people, and animals can be bought or made. You may be able to find pictures of Japanese gardens at the library.
3. There are several interesting subjects for brief reports to the class. Your librarian can help you find answers to the following questions: (*a*) How are volcanoes formed? (*b*) What causes an earthquake? (*c*) The Japanese export cultured pearls. What are they? Perhaps you can illustrate your report with pictures or draw diagrams on the blackboard.
4. Appoint a committee to prepare a picture exhibit on Japan. See if you can find pictures of Japanese costumes of feudal times. Pictures of Japanese buildings and temples and homes will make an interesting display.

Questions to Think About

1. Does the use of machine industry always make a nation progressive? Why?
2. What do we mean by "modern hands but feudal minds"?
3. Do you think it will be harder or easier for Japan to learn democratic ways than India? Why?
4. What freedoms do the Japanese people have to win for themselves?

Japanese Words and Names

Test your memory for the Japanese words in this chapter. Copy the sentences below in your notebook, completing each one of them with one of the words in this list: *shogun, bushido, mikado, tenno, shinto, samurai, nippon.*

1. The Japanese word for emperor is __?__.
2. The title of the emperor, meaning "exalted gate," is __?__.
3. The ancient religion of Japan is __?__.
4. The feudal courtesy rules of Japan are called __?__.
5. The nobles of Japan were the __?__.
6. The emperor's military leader was called the __?__.
7. The Japanese call their country "sunrise land," in Japanese __?__.



18. Asia from the Hilltop

Let's look at Asia from our hilltop. We see a continent which contains one third of the earth's land and nearly two thirds of its people. Life in Asia has changed more slowly during the last thousand years than life in Europe, but changes are now taking place more rapidly every day. In this unit we have learned something about the people of Asiatic countries.

We have found many differences between the people of Europe and the people of Asia. There are differences in the way they raise their food, and the kind of food they eat. There are differences in education and religion and government. There are differences in the way people live and want to live. These differences have been important, and they are still important. But perhaps now is a good time, on this hilltop, for us to look down and see that some things are the same in Asia as in other parts of the world.

We have said that things are changing in Asia. This is really another way of saying that Eastern culture and Western culture are gradually coming closer together. We must remember that the people of the lands of the East have a rich civilization as old as our own Western civilization. We must also remember that they have given much to our Western civilization and to the knowledge and progress of all the peoples of our world.

Asia is indeed backward in some ways. Farming almost everywhere is still carried on by methods which are centuries old. Modern industry has not yet reached most of Asia's people. But Europe and America, less than two hundred years ago, were in some ways like Asia today. There are farmers in Italy and Norway and Bulgaria even now who would be amazed by a great modern city like Shanghai, Calcutta, or Yokohama. In the highlands of Scotland and Spain cloth is still woven as it was before the Industrial Revolution, while

there are modern factories in Canton and Bombay. There are subways in New York and London and Paris, but there are also subways in Tokyo.

The West came to the East. Western ways began their slow journey to Asia when the first Portuguese merchants sailed around Africa to set up trading posts in India. They started coming faster when China unwillingly opened its first ports. They came even faster when Admiral Perry steamed into Tokyo Bay. With the introduction of the railroad and the telephone, the airplane and the radio, Western methods began to reach even some faraway villages. During the Second World War, Western soldiers and airmen tramped over the land and sped through the skies of Asia, and the knowledge of Western ways became even more widespread.

But the West has been learning, at the same time, to know and value the culture of the East. People of Western nations have traveled in Asia. Books about Asia have been more widely read. The art, literature, and philosophy of the oriental countries is becoming better known in the West. This should result in a growing understanding between peoples of the different cultures.

Asia has many problems to solve. The modern age has been bringing many new and wonderful things to Asia. It has also brought new problems to add to Asia's many old problems. Some of these problems are still facing many people in Europe and America. We have not yet found all the answers to them, but we feel sure that democracy can show us the way.

There is the problem of land. In Asia this still means the old problem of hunger. Ways must be found to make the land produce enough food for the people. In some places the farms are too small, and almost everywhere the farmers are too poor. They need modern machinery, and they need help. They need to be freed from heavy rents and debts and taxes. And they need modern knowledge.

There is the problem of education. Education for Asia means teaching millions of people, young and old, to read and write. This may seem at first like an enormous job, an almost impossible job. But let us remember that it has already been done in other places. Two hundred years ago hardly anybody in France could read or write. Less than fifty years ago most of the people in Russia could not read or write. There are even today in our own country people who have never learned to read and write.

Education will not come to Asia all at once, and it will not be easy. But already Asia has many thousands of schools, and fine universities and colleges. It needs many more of them. Education will give the people of Asia a broader knowledge of other parts of the world. From education they will gain greater strength and wisdom to improve their countries and enrich their lives.

Building the new governments of Asia brings up another old problem. Europeans and Americans have struggled for centuries to form better governments. Sometimes they have succeeded, often they have made mistakes. Sometimes they have been held down by tyrants, and have had to fight first for their freedom. The problem of government in Asia will not be easy. The people have had little experience in self-government. Many of them have almost nothing to build on except their own hope and courage. But this is also true of some Western countries.

After years of civil war in China the Communists have won control of the country. There are bitter religious differences in India. But some countries in Europe have worked their way toward freedom and democracy only through the hardships of religious quarrels and

civil war, and some have not yet reached these goals. The problems of government in Asia have already brought confusion and suffering. These problems cannot be solved without hard work, courage, and co-operation. But they can be solved.

Democracy will help. We in the United States hope that all the countries of Asia will solve their problems by becoming democratic, and that all the people will have a voice in choosing their leaders and making their laws. But we must remember that democracy in Asia may differ greatly from democracy in the United States. Democracy means that the people have a chance to find out which is the best way for them to live and work as free people. We must remember that conditions and problems in one country are often quite different from those in another country. If the nations of Asia set up democracies they may make some mistakes which we have not made. Yet they may also find new democratic ways which we have never tried. Democracy, in Asia as everywhere else, is the spirit in which people share their problems of justice and government, and work toward equal opportunity and freedom for all.

Hilltop Questions

1. Five strong leaders of recent years are Mustafa Kemal, Chiang Kai-shek, Jawaharlal Nehru, Sun Yat-sen, and Gandhi. See if you can remember to which country each belongs, and what he has done for his people.

2. Of all the countries of Asia which you have studied, which ones do you think have the most difficult problem of feeding their people? What are some of the plans to help solve this problem?

3. In what way do you think the problems of China are different from those of India?

4. Explain how Asia and the West have been drawing close together.

5. What problems do the people of both Asia and the West have to solve?

A Hilltop Project

Make a new book for the class called *Who's Who of the Twentieth Century*. Select the people that you think are doing the most for the world and their own countries. Select also the people who are playing an important part in current events. Paste in the book the best pictures you can find of each leader chosen, and have someone write in the book the story of his work.

Interesting Books about Asia

CARPENTER, FRANCES. *Tales of a Chinese Grandmother*. Doubleday, Doran & Company, Inc., New York, 1937. Stories of Chinese life and people.

CHRISMAN, ARTHUR BOWIE. *Shen of the Sea*. E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., New York, 1925. Delightful Chinese fairy tales, interesting and funny.

COATSWORTH, ELIZABETH. *The Cat Who Went to Heaven*. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1927. Legend of a poor Japanese artist who was asked to paint a picture of the Buddha, and who painted his little cat in the picture.

KIPLING, RUDYARD. *All the Mowgli Stories*. Doubleday, Doran & Company, Inc., New York, 1936. Kipling's wonderful jungle tales in a beautiful book.

LATTIMORE, ELEANOR FRANCES. *Peachblossom*. Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1943. Story of a little six-year-old girl in China during the Second World War.

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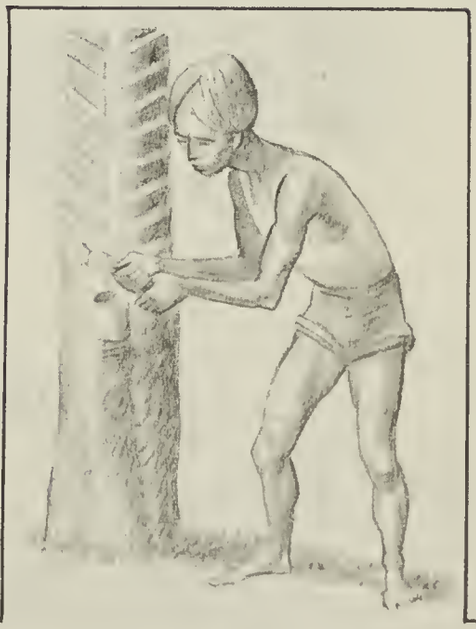
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Unit Five

Lands of the Tropics and Southward







19. Lands of the Pacific: Reaching toward Freedom



A Story · Two Kinds of Knowledge

The Moro boy leaped out of his boat and drew it up on the bank. Then he helped Mr. Crane and Fernando to unload their things.

"I'll not need you again until four, Nato," said Mr. Crane. "Then I'll be ready to start down river again."

He strode up the slope with his leather case of papers, and Fernando followed with the boxes. The young Filipino boy was proud to be working for this tall American engineer. He hoped to be an engineer himself some day. Did not Filipinos hold good positions even on Borneo and other islands, because they were well educated?

The shack at the top of the hill was the engineers' office. It was a bare, neat room with a large screened window. Mr. Crane was talking with the other engineer. Fernando placed the boxes on the table. He stood waiting for Mr. Crane's orders. He hoped they would let him stay and listen to the talk. He might learn some new things.

But no! "You can wait outside, Fernando," said Mr. Crane. "Keep an eye on that boy and his boat. We don't want to lose him."

The other engineer smiled. "Nato? Oh, he is as straight as a ruler. No finer lad about here. Get acquainted with him, Fernando. You'll like him."

Fernando walked slowly down the hill. He enjoyed going about with Mr. Crane on business trips. This was the first time he had come to Mindanao Island. But he knew about the Moros in this part of the country. Not many years ago they had been savages and pirates. Fernando knew that Nato was a skillful boatman. He had paddled them safely up the rushing stream. But Moros were Moslems, and Fernando was a Christian. He walked slowly along the path looking at Nato, in his red fez, seated on a log.

Nato did not look up. He was cleaning his gun, very carefully. It was indeed a fine gun. Fernando had never owned a gun. For a minute he was filled with envy. Then he lifted his head.

"There is a law that one does not carry a gun," he said rudely.

Nato glanced up then. He looked surprised at Fernando's tone. "I carry a gun," he said with firmness. After a silence he explained. "I have a permit, because I carry passengers. There are crocodiles."

Fernando felt ashamed. Filipinos were proud of their courtesy. Yet he, Fernando, had been rude to a stranger. The savage Moro was more polite than he was. He sat down on the log beside Nato.

"I did not think," he said. "There are no crocodiles in Manila."

"You have been in Manila?" asked Nato.

"I live there."

"Tell me about Manila," said the Moro boy, polishing the shining gun barrel. "Is it very large? Larger than Cagayan?"

Fernando was surprised and pleased.

"I do not know Cagayan, but Manila is the largest city in the Philippines."

With delight he began to describe his home city, the beautiful harbor, the tall buildings, the race track, the air base, the schools, and the great university. Nato listened with deep interest.

"That university," he said, "is where I shall study."

Fernando was surprised again. He looked doubtful.

"It takes much study before you can enter the university," he said.

Nato nodded. He laid the gun beside him on the log. "It is not easy for a Moro to get an education," he said. "My village had no school. We paddled down river to the nearest one. When I finished the beginners' school,



I had to go still farther to learn more. Now I go to agricultural school. You think Moros are only warriors? That is not so. We who are young know that the way of peace is good—the way of the school. Even the older chiefs say so, some of them. They have learned that our island has much for us if we know how to get it."

"There is much iron and gold," said Fernando, proud of what he had learned from the engineers.

Nato nodded again. "They have told me —the engineers who ride in my boat. They build dams to make electric power. That power can go along wires for many miles. It will turn machines to work the mines. It is to learn about this power that I want to go to the university. It is stronger than war power, and better."

Fernando sat still staring at the Moro boy. There was another question he wanted to ask.

"You are a Moslem," he said, pointing to the red fez Nato wore, "and yet you talk just like anyone else."

"Yes, I am a Moslem," said Nato, "a follower of the Prophet Mohammed. You are a Christian. Our customs are different from yours. But I myself was named for a Christian teacher, Donato Galia. He worked with the American, Dr. Laubach, who taught our people to read. Donato Galia told me something I have not forgotten. The Moslems have four Holy Books, and three of them belong also to the Christians: the Law of Moses, the Psalms of David, and the Gospel of Jesus. You have them in your Bible. Only the Koran you have not.

"You see, my friend," went on Nato, "we are all children of Allah. The trouble is we have not known this. Instead of fighting with each other we must work together. In schools, in the university, we who are students can get two kinds of knowledge. One kind helps us to manage *things*. The other helps us to understand *people*. Is not that true?"

Silently Fernando nodded. He had many things to think about. He had learned something important today. Maybe it was a better thing than he would have learned from the engineers. He had learned it from a Moro boy. The big thing, the important thing, is to understand people.


SOUTHEAST ASIA AND AUSTRALIA
Plains
Hills
Plateaus
Mountains
Sydney Over 1,000,000 people
Singapore 500,000 to 1,000,000 people
Brisbane 100,000 to500,000 people
Baguio Under 100,000 people
★Capital of a country
0 675
One inch equals 675 miles
CHINA
INNER MONGOLIA
MANCHURIA
Mukden
Vladivostok
HOKKAIDO
Peiping
Dairen
KOREA
Seoul
Pusan
Yellow Sea
Sea of Japan
HONSHU
Tokyo
Yokohama
Kyoto
Nagasaki
SHIKOKU
KYUSHU
East China Sea
Nanking
Shanghai
SHANSI
SHENSI
SHANTUNG PENINSULA
Grand Canal
Hwang Ho
Wei Ho
Hwang Ho PLAIN
SZECHWAN RED BASIN
Yangtze Kiang
Mekong R.
YUNNAN PLATEAU
Canton
Si Kiang
FORMOSA
TROPIC OF CANCER
Macao
Haiphong
Hanoi
Mandalay
Kwangchow
Hong Kong
PACIFIC OCEAN
FRENCH INDO-CHINA
Menam R.
THAILAND (SIAM)
Bangkok
Saigon
Gulf of Siam
South China Sea
Lingayen Gulf
LUZON
Baguio
Manila
Manila Bay
PHILIPPINE
LEYTE ISLANDS
Leyte Gulf
Cagayan
MINDANAO
Davao
Moro Gulf
Davao Gulf
Brunei
MALAYA
Singapore
Kuching
Strait of Malacca
SUMATRA
BORNEO
Strait of Makassar
MOLUCCA OR SPICE ISLANDS
CELEBES
BANGKA I.
BILLITON
Palembang
Soenda Strait
Makassar
INDONESIA
KRAKATOA
Jakarta (Batavia)
JAVA
BALI
TIMOR
MARIANAS ISLANDS
SAIPAN
TINIAN
GUAM
MARSHALL ISLANDS
CAROLINE ISLANDS
TRUK
PACIFIC OCEAN
EQUATOR
BISMARCK ARCH.
NEW GUINEA
PAPUA (to Australia)
NEW BRITAIN
SOLOMON ISLANDS
Port Moresby
Buna
INDIAN OCEAN
Darwin
Gulf of Carpentaria
NORTHERN TERRITORY
GREAT DIVIDING RANGE
Cairns
NEW HEBRIDES
NEW CALEDONIA
WESTERN AUSTRALIA
QUEENSLAND
TROPIC OF CAPRICORN
Alice Springs
AUSTRALIA
SOUTH AUSTRALIA
Lake Eyre
Brisbane
Kalgoorlie
Perth
Great Australian Bight
Broken Hill
Darling R.
NEW SOUTH WALES
Murray R.
Canberra
Sydney
Adelaide
VICTORIA
Melbourne
Tasman Sea
TASMANIA
Hobart
Auckland
NEW ZEALAND
NORTH ISLAND
Wellington
Christchurch
SOUTH ISLAND
10°
20°
30°
0°
90°
100°
110°
120°
130°
140°
150°
160°
170°
180°

South and east of Asia lie many islands. They spread across the ocean all the way to Australia. They are often called the East Indies. There are thousands of these islands, some large, many very small. Look at the map on page 298, or at the globe picture on page 427, and see how many there are—far too many for us to study each one. Notice that they lie along the equator, or just to the north or south, between the two lines which mark the tropics. Tropical lands such as these receive the most direct heat of the sun. Monsoon winds blow across these islands much of the time, and there is plentiful rainfall. Plants grow rapidly, crowding each other for light and space. The dense forests of these tropical lands are often called jungles.

Now turn to the map on page 403. This is a close-up of the nearer islands and the southeast corner of Asia. We have not yet studied this part of Asia, which extends southward among the islands. Trace on your map the boundaries of French Indo-China, Thailand, also called Siam, Burma, and the Malay States. Notice that Thailand and Burma run down the long, narrow Malay Peninsula. This peninsula looks like an arm, bent at the elbow, with its fist, the Malay States, just north of the large island of Sumatra. Notice the names of other large islands, so that you will know where to look for them as we learn about them. Java, long and narrow; north of it Borneo, which is very large; and Celebes, shaped like a small letter "k" with the long stem bent over like a roof. These islands and the small ones around them were known as the Netherlands Indies, and belonged for centuries to the Dutch. Now by agreement of the Dutch they form the Republic of Indonesia. To the north are the Philippines, with Luzon, the largest island, at the north, and Mindanao, the next largest, at the south. Away to the southeast is New Guinea, which, next to Greenland, is the largest island in the world. Scattered among these large islands are clusters of smaller ones, too many even to name. Some are so small that they have no names.

The island of Mindanao



Most of these islands are closely related to southeast Asia. If you could look down on this part of the world from high above, you would see that the islands are a part of the mountain ranges of the mainland, or the ranges which form Japan. All the islands are mountainous, and many of the mountains are volcanoes, some of them still active. One of these, Krakatao, is in the strait between Java and Sumatra. When Krakatao erupted in 1883 the explosion was heard in Australia, 1500 miles away.

Peoples of the East Indies

The native peoples of the islands are related to those of the mainland. The first peoples to live in these islands came a long time ago from the mainland. But there were many different migrations. Some people who were very dark-skinned probably came in very early times. These remained savage in their island homes. Others, taller and brown-skinned, came later. These were the Malays. They settled along the coasts and on the fertile lowlands of the islands, driving the savage settlers into the jungle and mountains. There are many different Malay tribes, with differing customs and languages. But the Malay languages are all somewhat alike, and the common Malay words used in trade and business are understood throughout the East Indies.

This great island region is the home of many races. Besides the Malays and the jungle tribes, people from Europe, Asia, and the United States live in these islands. Here meet the trade and travel routes of all the world. In the sixteenth century Dutch merchants and planters first settled in the East Indies. In later times thousands of Chinese became landowners and merchants. After Spain lost the Philippines to the United States, Americans came to live there. In Manila American government buildings, schools, and factories were built

You know that our own country is made up of many nationalities because people from many countries came here to make their homes. These islands of the Pacific are also the home

The cow is the beast of burden for this native of the Marianas





Instead of locking the door at night, this family pulls up the ladder

of a number of different peoples and religions. The religious beliefs of a people, as we have seen, often have much to do with their customs and ways of living. In early days migrating peoples from India brought the Hindu religion with them. Later, Arab seamen and traders brought the Moslem faith to the islands. Today most of the island peoples are followers of the Prophet Mohammed. Still later came the Chinese, most of whom are Buddhists. It was Magellan, in the employ of Spain, who discovered the Philippines, you remember, when he sailed around the globe. Spain claimed the islands and sent Catholic priests to teach the people, and now most Filipinos are Catholic Christians.

The jungle and mountain tribes are pagans. This means that they have a nature religion, and worship the spirits of trees, mountains, rivers, and storms, just as many American Indians worshiped. The people bring offerings, beat drums, and have ceremonies and dances to please the spirits and keep them from bringing harm to the villages or fields. Many of these tribes are peaceful, kindly people who govern themselves according to ancient and respected laws.

How do the islanders live? On all these tropical islands, life as it was in ancient times is oddly mixed with modern ways of living. The large cities are near the coast, located on good harbors. Here we find paved streets, streetcars, and automobiles. There are good stores, government buildings, schools, churches, temples, and mosques. The cities often have modern suburbs with comfortable houses, the homes of Europeans and Americans who are engaged in business in the islands. Around each modern city there is often a larger native city, where the houses may be built of bamboo and thatched with coarse grass or palm leaves.

The people of the islands sometimes live in houses raised on posts four or five feet high, or even higher. Such houses are cooler in hot weather, drier during seasons of heavy rainfall, and protected from animals. Floors and walls are made of bamboo. A ladder leads up to the door. The space under the house is sometimes used as a barn. One side is left open. Here the farmer's chickens, pigs, and water buffalo are kept during the night.

There is little furniture in houses of this kind. Mats are used for beds. The cooking fire is built on a small platform covered with sand or dirt. Rice is boiled in a clay pot and stirred with a spoon made from a coconut shell with a stick fastened to it for a handle. Most of the houses have no windows. If the farmer



A street in Batavia

prospers he builds a better house. He sends his children to school if there is one nearby. The older boys and girls may go to work in a dockyard or factory.

The people who live along the coast or near a river are skillful boatmen. They sail or paddle many miles to work or to market.

Rice is the principal food crop. On most of the islands flooded paddy fields dot the landscape. They spread across the lowlands and are terraced up the hills. Coconuts are raised or gathered from wild groves. Tobacco and sugar cane are grown. The people of the islands also gather and bring to market such jungle products as *cinchona* bark for making quinine, tropical fruits, valuable woods and dyestuffs, gums, rattan and other fibers, beeswax, honey, and spices. Some products, such as tea, coffee, and rubber, are raised on large plantations. Oil in Java, Sumatra, and Borneo, and gold in Luzon and Mindanao are produced with western machinery.

Fighting malaria in the tropics. The health of people in tropical countries is often endangered by the extreme heat and dampness, and by tropical diseases, many of which are carried by insects. The commonest of these diseases is malaria, a lingering fever which is spread by the bite of a certain kind of mosquito.

Our American soldiers who were sent to the islands of the South Pacific were trained to fight this enemy. Fighting malaria meant constantly fighting mosquitoes. This was done by poison spray, just as we fight flies. Living quarters were sprayed by hand, and island areas were sprayed by airplane every few days. Screens were used in windows, and mosquito netting was draped over beds. The government also did everything possible to destroy the breeding places of the mosquitoes. Swamps were drained and all standing water was sprayed with a film of oil. With the aid of modern science, the tropical islands have been made much healthier places in which to live.

Who governs the mainland of southeast Asia and the East Indian islands? There have been changes in the government of all these regions. Most of them were colonies owned by European or American countries, but during the Second World War they were invaded and held for a time by Japan. Now many of these lands are independent and have set up their own governments. Changes are still going on as these peoples work toward self-government. We can get a clearer idea of them by taking an airplane trip.

The Air Age may mean great progress for these lands. The Second World War brought the wonders of the airplane even to tribes of jungle peoples. All the larger islands and many of the smaller ones have good landing fields. Actually to visit all these lands by plane would take many months. But let us imagine ourselves making a swift flight to get a view of the most important places. Follow the flight of our plane by locating on the map on page 403 the places named. The map maker has drawn a red line to guide you.

French Indo-China. We take off near the southern border of China, in the northeastern part of French Indo-China. Here is the capital city, Hanoi, and the port of Haiphong, in the delta of the great Red River (Coi River). As we fly south above the coastal lowlands we see ranges of mountains in the west. They are covered with valuable teak forests. In these mountains are found gold, lead, and tin, as well as coal and precious stones. Following the coast to the southwest, we fly over the plains and delta of the Mekong River. Saigon, on the Mekong delta, is another great port. From Saigon and Haiphong, the two important ports of French Indo-China, tremendous amounts of rice are exported.

This southern coast, near the delta of the Mekong River, was settled by the French about two hundred years ago. When the French colonists discovered the rich resources of this tropical region they took more and more of the land. Gradually they extended French rule over the native people, and pushed the boundary of China north beyond the Red River. This great colony has brought riches to France. Indo-China is composed of a group of federated states, all of them, until recently, under the control of France. But the people of French Indo-China now demand their independence. Some of the states have already been given self-rule.

The southern part of French Indo-China is rich, fertile rice country. Everywhere the wet fields gleam. North of the Mekong delta is a wide valley and plain, in the center of which is a large lake. This lake is connected with the Mekong River delta by a wide stream. Six months of the year, during the heavy rains, this stream flows from the lake to the delta. Then during the six dry months it flows the other way, from the delta into the lake. This makes a very convenient natural irrigation system for the farmers. It provides water for their rice fields the year around. No wonder French Indo-China has rice to export. Other exports are fish and fish oils, tea, coffee, pepper, cinnamon, rubber, coal, and zinc.

Thailand. From French Indo-China we fly northwest into Thailand, or Siam. Thailand is an independent country whose king rules according to a constitution. Much of Thailand is made up of lowland plains. The eastern part of the country is rough and poor, but as we fly into the valley of the Menam River (Chao Phraya) we find green paddy fields again, and also towns and villages. To the north the hills on both sides of the Menam are covered with teak forests. We turn our plane

southward toward Bangkok, the capital, a railroad center, and a port. It has beautiful buildings, among them Buddhist temples, for most of the people of Thailand are Buddhists.

Rice is the principal crop and export. This is true also of Burma, which lies east and northeast of Thailand. We hear of some countries, India and Ceylon for example, which cannot raise enough rice to feed their people. Then we should remember French Indo-China, Thailand, and Burma, where rice is raised in great quantity for export.

Thailand extends down the long narrow arm of the Malay peninsula. Fishing is an important industry here, and almost every meal consists of rice prepared in some way with fish.

Burma. We leave Bangkok behind and fly northwest to the famous old city of Mandalay on the Irrawaddy River in Burma. This is a trading center for northern Burma. Burma is rugged and mountainous. Through the center, from north to south, runs the Irrawaddy River. We turn southward and follow this river to its mouth on the Bay of Bengal. In the valley of this river are most of the villages and farms of the people of Burma. There are a few large towns, but Burma is not nearly so crowded as India, which borders it on the west.

Burma is very warm and has plenty of rain. Cotton, tobacco, and sugar cane are raised. As we fly over the delta of the Irrawaddy to Rangoon we see fields of rice. Rice is the chief crop in the south, and the most important export of Rangoon, the great port of Burma. Next in importance is petroleum. The British have developed fields in the Irrawaddy Valley which produce oil in valuable quantity. This crude oil is carried by pipe line to refineries in and near Rangoon. The third important product of Burma is timber, for the mountains are covered with forests of teak and ironwood.

The Burmese people are Buddhists, and



Ancient temple with pagodas in Bangkok



Workman in Malaya separates stone and gravel from the tin

each village has its monk or priest, who is also the teacher of a primary school. Because of these many elementary schools, most of the Burmese people can read and write. For this reason Burma's problem of education is not so difficult as that of India. Another thing which is helping Burma toward modern ways of living is the great freedom of the women of this country.

Rangoon, the capital, is a fine modern city, with beautiful public buildings, parks and gardens, and a university. Like India, Burma was governed by the British for a long time. In January, 1948, however, the British turned over the government to a president chosen by the Burmese, and Burma became a completely independent republic. Not long after this Burma was admitted to membership in the United Nations.

We leave Rangoon behind and fly southward across an arm of the Bay of Bengal and down the Malay Peninsula, following the central range of mountains. Thailand claims the eastern slope of the mountains, and the coast along the Gulf of Siam. To Burma belong the western slope and the coast along the Bay of Bengal. Find these two bodies of water on your map, page 299, and notice their shape. As the mountains drop away to lower hills we can see the gleam of the sea on both sides, for here the peninsula is only forty miles wide. From this point southward the peninsula belongs to Thailand until we reach the part where it widens out. There we come to the border of the Malay States.

British Malaya. The Malay States compose a federation under the guidance of the British. Each state has some freedom of "local" rule, that is, rule within its own boundaries. But Britain decides foreign relations.

This wide "fist" of the Malay Peninsula is full of riches. Much rubber and a great deal of the world's tin is exported from here. The tin is found in the long gradual western slopes of the hills and under the flat lands along the coast of the Strait of Malacca. The mountains contain iron and chrome ore, gold, silver, and tungsten. In the jungle grow spice-bearing trees, and along the shores are coconut groves.

The climate is hot, and it rains about half the days of the year. Thick jungles cover much of the land. Most of the people are Malays, but there are also thousands of Chinese in the cities, and some Chinese workers in the mines. The Chinese are so numerous and have been so industrious that they have made Malaya a center of Chinese culture.

Their shops, pagodas, and Buddhist shrines give the country the appearance of China. Our plane circles the island at the tip of the peninsula, which is the great British port of Singapore. Ships from all over the world pass through Malacca Strait and anchor at Singapore. It is the gateway between the Pacific and Indian oceans.

The Republic of Indonesia

Sumatra. Beyond the Strait of Malacca we reach the coast of Sumatra. This large island is more than 1000 miles long, but much of it lies behind us to the northwest. Flying on toward the southeast we find no harbors along the coast. Many rivers empty into the ocean through flat swampy deltas, streams with overgrown banks where crocodiles live. We turn inland toward the south, crossing the equator. The ground rises slightly higher here, and is good agricultural land. Unrolling below us are rubber and tobacco plantations, rice fields, and orange and lemon groves. In the distance, we catch glimpses of some of Sumatra's mountain peaks.

On both banks of a wide river stand the buildings of Sumatra's largest city, Palembang. It is more than fifty miles from the sea, but trading vessels come up the river, and Palembang is the largest port of the island. It is near a great petroleum district. North and east of this end of Sumatra lie the two islands of Bangka and Billiton. They are important for the tin they produce. As we leave Sumatra we fly across Soenda Strait, and we can see beneath us the volcanic island of Krakatao.

Java. Now we are over Java. This is the most important island of the Republic of Indonesia. On this long, narrow island live 48,000,000 people, more than one third as many as live in the United States. We are already above Batavia (Jakarta), important seaport, former capital of the Netherlands Indies, and new capital of the Republic of Indonesia. From Batavia railroads run to other parts of Java, and planes take off for Asia and Europe. Out of the harbor go ships loaded with tea, coffee, cacao, sugar, rice, quinine, tobacco, and rubber.

As we fly eastward the central mountain range gives us picture after picture of gorgeous peaks and volcano craters. In many places rice fields are terraced up the hills. On the

A rubber tree is tapped for its valuable sap





Waxing the pattern on batik

lower levels are fields of corn, sweet potatoes, peanuts, and soybeans, and large plantations of tea, coffee, rubber, and sugar cane. Towns are hidden by thick-growing trees, shrubs, and vines, many of them having brilliant flowers. Javanese houses are built on the ground, instead of on posts, as in many of the islands. We see jungles where the rhinoceros, the large wild ox, and the royal tiger roam. Tigers are allowed to live because they kill the wild pigs which damage the gardens.

Over the central part of the long island of Java we look down on the northern side of the mountain range and see the city of Jogjakarta, which was, for a time, the center of the struggle for independence from Dutch rule. By agreement of the Dutch the Republic of Indonesia now has self-rule, and a central government has been organized.

There are many foreigners in the large cities, but throughout the great central portion of Java most of the people are Malays. These Malay Javanese have an old and civi-

This whole famly in Indonesia helps with the rice planting



lized culture. They are all Moslems. Many have made the sacred pilgrimage to Mecca, and are much respected for this.

From their ancient Hindu customs and their Moslem ways the Javanese have made a culture of their own, with lovely dances, interesting ceremonies, and beautiful buildings. They are an artistic people, skilled in fine metal crafts and batik. Batik is a way of decorating cloth by painting on it a design with melted wax. When the cloth is dipped in cool dye the wax protects the design. Women paint the patterns, and men dye the cloth. Then the cloth is washed in hot water to remove the wax, and the pattern shows white on the colored ground.

Near the eastern end of the island we fly over the port and naval base of Soerabaja. This city has no real harbor, but ships can anchor safely in the narrow strait between Java and the near-by island.

Bali. Close to the eastern tip of Java lies the small mountainous island of Bali. From above, the green terraced hillsides of rice look like hanging gardens. The people of Bali have kept their Hindu religion, with its castes and customs. They are a gay and friendly people. Foreign visitors to Bali enjoy the festivals, especially the beautiful dancing of boys and girls. Now our plane heads northeast toward the southern end of the island of Celebes.

Celebes. We swing low over the harbor of Makassar, and notice again the many different kinds of ships that lie at anchor in one of these island ports. Here are modern steamships as well as Chinese junks and Indonesian sailboats. The natives near Makassar have been famous shipbuilders for centuries. Their boats are beautiful, but clumsy, as they swing their sails and turn slowly about. They look like pictures we have seen of vessels in which Spanish and Portuguese explorers long ago set forth across



Boy and girl dancers on the island of Bali

unknown oceans. The natives so admired these first ships from Europe that they copied the high decks and still build them. But we see also long slender canoes paddled swiftly in and out between larger vessels. The ocean has always been the highway of Indonesia, the only road from island to island, and Indonesians are at home on the water. They will soon be at home in the air, too, since there are good airports on these islands now.

Celebes is mountainous and wooded. Teak and other valuable woods, as well as bamboo, are obtained from the forests. Rattan and kapok fibers, cloves, nutmegs, and mace are exported, and the coffee of Celebes is excellent.

Borneo. Across the Strait of Makassar we head northward along the forest-clothed island of Borneo. Only along the coasts of this huge island are civilized settlements to be found. In the jungle live wandering tribes. The rivers are highways for their long boats. Oil from Borneo is unusually pure, and can be used as ship fuel without any refining. Borneo has deposits of coal, iron, diamonds, and gold; and rubber and copra are exported.

The Philippine Islands

Mindanao. Flying high along a chain of little islands we approach Mindanao, one of the two biggest islands of the Philippines. On Borneo, Mindanao, and the small islands between them, live a people called the Moros. The Moro tribes are mostly Malay in race, and they have been Moslems for hundreds of years. We fly east over Moro Gulf, then across the island to Davao Gulf, and over the harbor city of Davao. Rising up beyond is the great volcano, Mount Apo, the highest peak in the Philippines, nearly 10,000 feet above the sea. Davao is a city of about 100,000 people, who live chiefly in thatched bamboo huts.

Our plane goes northward over a wide lowland through which flows the Agusan River. In the northeast part of the island are the rugged mountains, rich in the gold and iron of which Nato and Fernando spoke. We catch a glimpse, here and there, of a mining camp or smelter. Turning southwest, we fly along the north coast, over bay after bay, with busy

The hemp is cut a few inches above the ground and the stalks are split



The stalks are soaked so the outer bark can be removed. Then they are dried



towns and harbors. There is much fine lowland which is suitable for producing rubber, coconuts, quinine, or pineapples. We see the mouth of the Agus River. This little river flows out of Lake Lanao in the mountains. The slope is so steep that the river falls 2200 feet in about twenty-four miles. This is the river across which the engineers in our story planned to build a dam in order to obtain electric power. Find the river on the map on page 404.

Northward we fly over one green island after another. We hear names important in Philippine history. This long, narrow island unrolling below us is Cebu, where long ago Magellan's ship came to anchor. Do you see that tiny island near the harbor of Cebu? That is where the famous explorer lost his life. To the east, beyond the island of Leyte, lies Leyte Gulf, where a Japanese fleet was defeated and destroyed in the Second World War.

Luzon. We are now flying over Luzon at the northern end of the group. Look at your map and see what a strange, irregular shape it has. Manila Bay is the finest harbor in the Indies. Do you see the peninsula of Bataan, and near it the little fortress of Corregidor? Americans remember these names, because it was here that our American soldiers and their Filipino allies held out against the invading Japanese in 1942. Manila is the capital of the Philippines. This modern city spreads out far beyond the old walled Spanish town. Broad avenues, fine buildings, and lovely parks made it a beautiful city, but it was badly damaged in the Second World War.

Northward over wide, flat rice fields we fly, to the shores of Lingayen Gulf, where American troops landed on their victorious return to the island. Farther east are mountainous regions, where the rice fields climb the steep

Rollers break and crush the stalks. Then a worker separates the fiber from the wood



The rough fiber is tied in bales ready for shipping





Rice terraces on Luzon

slopes like stairways. These skillfully built terraces are the work of Igorots, pagan Malay tribesmen, who have raised their rice in this way for centuries. American engineers are putting mountain roads through this region. Baguio, an important mining center and pleasant summer resort, is located here.

In the jungles of eastern Luzon live a people called Negritos, a Spanish word meaning the "small blacks." They are not Malays, and they have sometimes been called pygmies because they are very short. The Negritos, who have black skins and thick frizzled hair, lived in the Philippines before the Malays came. They eat roots, wild fruits, and game which they kill with bows and arrows. In spite of nearby civilization, they remain wild and shy and hold fast to their own way of life.

Coconut groves, chiefly in southeastern Luzon, cover a million acres. Sugar is an old and valuable crop. Much rice is raised, but not enough for the people, and rice must be imported for food. One of the largest industries is the production of hemp for rope. Large clusters of fiber grow in the stalks of banana-like trees. The clusters are gathered, dried, and taken to factories. Here machines twist the hairy fibers into strands, and the strands into tough, lasting rope. Manila rope has been valued for hundreds of years, especially for use on ships.

Progress in the Philippines. Sixteen million people live in the Philippines, most of them on the island of Luzon. Under the government of the United States they were provided with schools. Christian missionaries,

also, have done much to teach the people the use of medicine and modern methods of agriculture.

One of these missionaries was an American professor by the name of Frank Laubach. Working among the Moros on Mindanao Island, Dr. Laubach invented a simple way to teach these unlettered tribesmen how to read and write in their own tongue. In a few hours a man could learn well enough to teach another what he had learned. This system worked so well that it spread from Mindanao to other regions, and is now being taught and used in many parts of India, South America, and Africa.

With the help of the United States, the people of the Philippines learned to understand democracy. They elected their own president and lawmakers, and took part in their own government. In the Second World War Americans and Filipinos fought side by side to free the islands from the Japanese. In July, 1946, the Philippines became an independent republic.

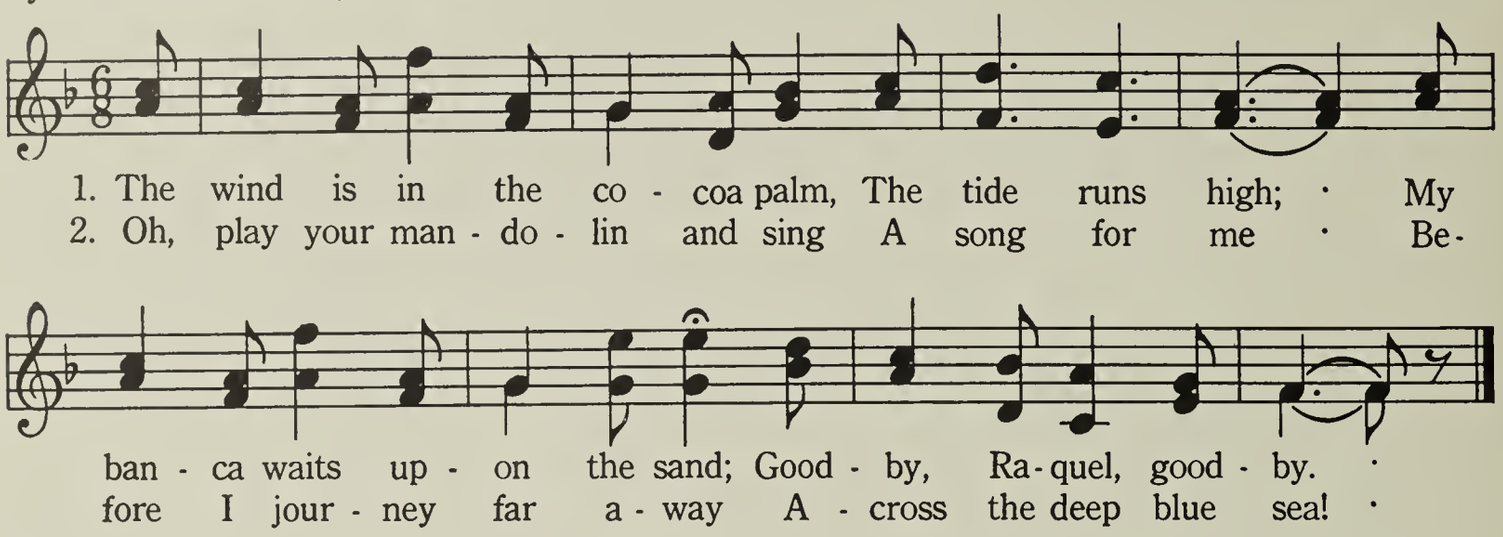
Waterfront on Manila Bay, the finest harbor in the Indies



Good-By

English version
by Christine Turner Curtis

Filipino Folk Song



Far over the Ocean

East of Luzon lies an area of the western Pacific Ocean as large as the United States. It is sprinkled with tiny islands. The area of all the land of these islands would not be larger than the little state of Delaware. So small are they, that this part of the ocean is sometimes called Micronesia, the "little islands." It is not easy to put these scattered islands on a map. There are four main groups of islands—the Marianas Islands, the Carolines, the Marshalls, and the Gilberts. The globe picture on page 427 will show you where they lie. We will pay a swift visit to some of these island groups, and you will find the red line again, guiding you.

The Carolines, the Marshalls, and the Marianas were first claimed by Spain. Do you remember why? Later on, Spain gave Guam in the Marianas to the United States, and sold the rest of the islands of these three groups to Germany. After the First World War, all colonies were taken from Germany, just as Palestine, Syria, and Iraq were taken from Turkey. They were entrusted to different nations as mandates. These three groups of islands—the Carolines, the Marshalls, and the Marianas—were mandated to Japan. The nation in charge of a mandate was trusted to act as a good guardian. The Japanese, however, at once began to fortify these islands, and used them as bases for their fleets of ships and planes in the Second World War. Then after the Second World War these three groups were put under the control of the United States.

The Gilbert Islands belong to Great Britain, but they, like Guam, were seized by the Japanese in the Second World War.

Marianas Islands. We fly straight eastward from Manila for about 1500 miles. Then, flying lower, we find ourselves over the Marianas Islands. Directly below us is hilly Saipan, green and beautiful. It is about six miles wide and fifteen miles long. The shores are covered with graceful coconut palms, breadfruit and banana trees, and gorgeous flowering trees. Waving sugar cane spreads over the coastal plain and the flat tablelands. Nearby is the island of Tinian, not quite as long. Here, too,

are acres of sugar cane. Sugar is the most valuable field crop in these islands. The natural crop is copra, the dried meat of coconuts. There are also valuable trees, such as sandalwood, rosewood, and ironwood. Tobacco and indigo plants that look like tall peas grow wild.

The natives are called Chamorros. They are much like the Filipinos, with their light-brown skins, their charming friendly ways, and their Spanish customs. They like dancing and guitar music. There are some Koreans and Japanese here, too, who were brought in as workers while the Japanese held the islands. Other Marianas Islands lie to the north. In the same group, a half-hour's flight to the south, is Guam, largest island of the group.

Guam. Guam has belonged to the United States since 1898, except while the Japanese held it during the Second World War. It is now a well-planned and busy United States air base, with several fine airfields. The 8500-foot runway is the longest in the world. Part of our Pacific fleet is based here. A marshy inlet was changed into a splendid harbor by dredging and by building a long breakwater of coral rock. Guam, like some of the other mid-Pacific islands, is formed from coral rock.

The street of a native village on Guam



How coral islands are formed. Coral is made of the skeletons of tiny sea animals, which live in warm, shallow water. Deep ocean water is cold. But in the Pacific there are mountains rising from the ocean bottom almost to the surface of the sea. The water above these mountaintops is warmed by the sun, and here in the warm shallow water the coral animals can live. One coral animal attaches itself to a rock and from it new animals grow out. When it dies the living animals remain attached to its skeleton and in their turn produce new animals. So on the mountaintops under the sea the small skeletons are built one on another until the strange plantlike branches reach above the water. They catch seaweed and driftwood and form islands. Sometimes a coral animal separates itself from the group, floats away, and fastens to another rock, starting a new coral formation.

Coral grows very slowly. It took long, long ages for the coral branches to reach above the water and form these islands. As the coral keeps on growing underwater around the edge of the islands, it forms a reef, or chain of rocks, just below the surface of the water.

A colony of coral animals grows faster around the outside edge. Sometimes the branches widen out in a large circle before they reach the surface, forming a reef somewhat circular in shape. The coral may then grow above the water, often forming a circle of islands. A circular reef or a chain of islands around a lagoon of sheltered water is called an *atoll*.

Marshalls. Eastward from Guam we fly nearly two thousand miles to the Marshall Islands. More than thirty coral atolls make up this cluster. How beautiful they are! From high above they look like necklaces dropped on the blue velvet of the ocean. Some are green beads, covered with trees. Some are white—bare white coral sand. The living coral produces many colors in the shallow ocean water—red, purple, yellow, gray.

The largest atoll in the Marshalls is Kwajalein Atoll—ninety tiny islands surround its lagoon which is 76 miles long. All the islands are slender, less than a mile wide, and only a few feet above the water. The climate is hot and damp, with more than 160 inches of rainfall each year, and only the eastern breezes to bring some coolness. The natives, of much the same race as the Hawaiians, usually live on one island of an atoll and visit the others only



to gather coconuts. They travel in *outrigger* canoes. These are skillfully made of thin pieces of wood fitted together and fastened with handmade twine of twisted coconut fiber. They have an arched outrigger and a platform for passengers or cargo. Their sails carry them over the water with remarkable speed. Copra is the only crop for export. But the natives make beautiful articles such as woven baskets, shell necklaces, and headbands. Their houses have thatched walls and roofs.

Gilberts. As we wing our way south, across the equator, we fly over the sixteen groups of the Gilbert Islands. These are low, atoll islands. Their people are Christians like the Marshallese. Their villages have cleanly swept coral streets. Their thatched houses are raised on platforms, and have no walls. They weave mats and baskets from palm and pandanus leaves. The pandanus is a pinelike tree with a fruit nearly as big as a basketball. It can be broken apart in sections which are orange-yellow inside. It tastes somewhat like a pineapple, and children are very fond of it.

Another tree very useful to the islanders is the breadfruit. This fruit tastes much like bread or potatoes, and it is never eaten raw. It is gathered before it ripens, and is baked, boiled, fried, or made into pudding. From the stringy inner bark of the tree cloth is made. The wood is used for canoes and furniture. Glue is made from the sticky sap.

Carolines. Our plane swings about here and flies westward over the hundreds of far-scattered Caroline Islands. The Truk Islands, in the center of the Carolines, are a large atoll group. These islands lie inside a coral reef which forms a great lagoon. Truk was the largest naval base of the Japanese during the Second World War. All of these islands will be valuable for aviation as fueling bases or weather stations.



There are many kinds of coral

What shall we remember about these tropical lands which we have seen? Suppose, now, that our plane is taking us back to the mainland base from which we started. This is a long flight westward over the Philippine Islands and the South China Sea. On the way we think over the things we have seen and heard. What do you remember?

First, the countries of southeast Asia: the independent kingdom of Thailand, the Republic of Burma, and the colonial lands of French Indo-China and British Malaya. Thailand, Burma, and French Indo-China we shall remember for their warm river valleys and the great amount of rice grown to feed

hungry people in these and other lands. Malaya we shall remember for rubber plantations and for mines which produce much of the world's tin.

Second, the Republic of Indonesia, thousands of small islands and four large ones, of which Java is the busiest and most crowded. We remember important tin mines, great plantations of tea, coffee, rubber, tobacco, and sugar cane, paddy fields filling the lowlands and climbing the hills, bright flowers and beautiful batik-dyed cloth. We remember that the people are mostly Malay in race and Moslem in religion.

Third, the Philippine Islands, for many years under our own government, now an independent republic. We remember the Malayan Filipinos of Luzon and many of the other islands, the groups of jungle people, and the Moros of Mindanao. We think of rice again, as well as of coconuts, hemp, and many wild products of the jungle. And we remember with some pride that the independence of the Philippines was won through the efforts of its own people with the peaceful help and guidance of the United States.

Fourth, the "little islands" scattered across the Pacific Ocean. We remember beautiful tropical islands and a warm-hearted, friendly people. We think of coconuts and sugar cane and the great naval and air base at Guam.

The United States imports many things from these tropical lands. During the Second World War, when overseas trade ceased, our people found out by experience what some of these products are. Cinnamon, pepper, ginger, and cloves, which came from the old Spice Islands, disappeared from our kitchens. There was no coconut for our cakes and candies. There was no rubber for our automobile tires, bathing caps, or raincoats. Instead of tins, glass jars held the foods on the grocery shelves.

Our world has grown so small that all countries depend on each other. Each of the new nations of southeast Asia and all the islands of the Pacific have something to add to the comfort or pleasure of others. As the people of these lands find their way toward freedom, the United Nations may be able to help them to develop new ways of doing their work and producing their goods.

Study Questions

1. Why do we study southeast Asia along with the nearby islands?
2. What kind of climate do we find in these lands?
3. What races and religions do we find here?
4. What kind of houses do the islanders build, and what is their chief food crop?
5. What countries lie on the mainland of southeast Asia?
6. What are the great rivers of southeast Asia?
7. What is the most important crop of the farmers in southeast Asia, and why is it a good thing that it is exported in quantity?
8. What is the capital and chief port of Burma?
9. What are the rich resources of the Malay States?
10. What crops are raised on the great plantations of Java, and what crops do native farmers raise?
11. What products come from the forest lands of Celebes and Borneo?
12. What are the two largest islands of the Philippines?
13. On which island do most of the Filipinos live, and of what race chiefly are they?
14. What can you remember of the Moros and the Igorots?
15. Under what country's government did the Philippines receive education and learn democracy?

Questions for a Class Discussion

1. What are some of the problems the new Republic of Indonesia will have to solve?

2. Are these problems somewhat like those of India and China?

3. Why is it sometimes difficult for a nation which has governed colonies to give them their independence?

4. How can a retiring government and a former colony continue to be helpful to each other?

Exploring with the Encyclopedia

The encyclopedia has an amazing amount of information to give to the person who knows how to find it. But sometimes it takes patience to search out all the facts you want. You need to learn, for one thing, how to watch for *cross references*. Perhaps you have already discovered these useful hints.

You would not expect to find the same description given in full more than once in the same book. Instead of this, the makers of the encyclopedia tell you to look under certain other headings. At the end of the account of rubber, for example, you may find a note saying: See INDIA RUBBER, or, See PARA RUBBER TREES. These are *cross references*. If you look for these headings in the same encyclopedia you will find more information about rubber. Or perhaps you may find a note at the bottom of each page of the encyclopedia which tells you: Cross references are indicated by SMALL CAPITALS. This means that each word which is printed in small-capital letters is really another topic you can look up, another place to dig for the facts you want.

There are too many interesting plants in southeast Asia to be described in your textbook. Divide the class into groups to study tropical products of forest and field. Gather information and pictures showing how some of them are produced, processed, and prepared for export. Your list might contain such products as the following:

kapok	cloves	rubber	teak	rosewood
hemp	nutmegs	coffee	ebony	sandalwood
rattan	mace	quinine	bamboo	ironwood

You will find information about all these products in a good encyclopedia. Be sure to watch for cross references. Ask your librarian to help you find books which will supply still more pictures and facts.

Other Things to Do

1. Choose two members of the class to take the parts of Fernando and Nato, and let them read aloud the conversation of the two boys in the story. Some member of the class may enjoy writing some additional conversation to be read aloud.

2. Read a travel book written by someone who has actually traveled in this part of the world. Learn more about the dancers of Bali, or something else which interests you, and share the most interesting things you learn with the class. Perhaps the librarian will help you to choose your book.

3. During the Second World War many American servicemen went to islands in the South Pacific. Do you know anyone who was there? Ask him about his experiences. Possibly he would be willing to tell the class about them.

4. The Republic of Indonesia is experiencing many changes. The class might enjoy keeping a scrapbook of news clippings about these islands, as was suggested for India and China.

Game with Exports

Manila, Batavia, Saigon, Macassar, Singapore, Bangkok, Palembang, Davao.

Copy the numbered column of countries and islands in your notebook, write after each one its great seaport city, chosen from the group above, and add one important export shipped from that harbor.

1. French Indo-China __?__
2. Thailand __?__
3. Malay States __?__
4. Sumatra __?__
5. Java __?__
6. Celebes __?__
7. Mindanao __?__
8. Luzon __?__

20. Australia and Its Island Neighbors



A Story · Wool and Wideness

Cary Hayward lived on a sheep station in Australia. It would be called a ranch in the United States, a very large ranch. His father's land extended in every direction for many miles. Few visitors came to the big, sprawling country house which was Cary's home. That was one reason why it was such fun when George came all the way from England for a visit. The other reason was that George was always being surprised. He was surprised at things which Cary had seen all his life.

When George and Uncle Jim stepped out of the plane which had brought them from the railroad station more than a hundred miles away, George looked about on all sides.

"Where are the sheep?" he asked.

"The sheep?" echoed Cary. "They're in a lot of places, but not very near here."

"Don't you remember the flocks I showed you from the plane?" said Uncle Jim. He was Cary's youngest uncle. He had been in England for months, staying with George's family, and had brought George back with him.

"Those sheep were miles away," said George.

"They were coming in this direction," said Cary's father. "You'll see plenty of sheep in a few days. Shearing time is coming."

The boys took long horseback rides, and George was surprised at the scrubby trees and the gray saltbush which covered the plains, and at the wild flowers which had sprung up following the winter rains. They were different from the flowers at home, he said. They went hunting, and George was surprised at the number of rabbits.

"These aren't many," said Cary. "I've seen hundreds of them in a drove. We can shoot them whenever we like, the more the better. You see, they eat the grass and shrubs that we need for the sheep. We sell the rabbit skins."

In the thickets along the streams they started up a dozen gray-brown animals, which surprised George again. In swift jumps, fifteen or twenty feet long, they made off across the plain.

"Why, those were kangaroos," said George, with wide eyes.

"Kangaroos they were," said Uncle Jim, "and they are increasing. I must get a permit to kill them off. No danger of having them die out around here."

In a few days the shearers arrived, and the flocks began to come in. Trained collie dogs helped the herders to guide the sheep.

Then Cary took George to the big shearing shed, where they watched the shearers use their electric clippers. Their hands moved over a sheep so quickly that the fleece was all off in a few minutes. It was gathered up by other men who sorted it into separate piles. Again George stared with wide eyes.

"You see," explained Cary, "some parts of the fleece are better than others. In some parts the wool is longer. That heap is wool from necks, that one is broken pieces, that one over there is called triple A combings. The different lots are used for different things."

The wool was bound into large bales, loaded into motor trucks, and sent off to the railroad station. One flock after another moved through the shearing shed, leaving its wool behind it.

That evening when the family gathered on the wide veranda, Cary asked, "George, what is the most surprising thing you have seen in Australia: the plants, the wild animals, the shearers, or what?"

George thought a moment.

"Well, all of them were surprising," he said, "but there's something else. It's the wideness. Everything is so big, and so empty, the earth and sky and all. At home in England the towns are close together, and the buildings are close together in the town. The fields and meadows are small and neat and close together, and the villages are tucked right in among the fields. So much wideness out here makes me feel queer, sort of lost. And yet—I think I like it."

"I know what you mean, George," said Uncle Jim. "When you get used to it I think you'll like the wideness best of all. I've spent my life out here with the sheep. It's much better than living in a crowded city. Just this year, when I went back to Liverpool to see the wool made into cloth, do you know, the city seemed to choke me. The buildings crowded me. I didn't have room to breathe. Now out here I can breathe deep and feel at home again."

They all laughed.

"England needs Australia's wool to keep her mills running," said Mr. Hayward. "And maybe English people need Australia's wide space to breathe in."

"Yes," said George, with a grin, "I think wide spaces are good for people."

Looking at the Little Continent

Australia is the smallest of the continents. It has an area about equal to that of the United States. It is sometimes called the continent "down under." Can you tell why? Look for it on your globe picture of the Southern Hemisphere, on page 15. The frozen waste of the Antarctic surrounds the South Pole. Australia lies on one side of the globe, and the southern ends of South America and Africa point toward it from the other side. Now look up the other globe pictures, on pages 188 and 427, and see how many views of Australia you can find. This is the best way to learn Australia's location in the world.

The shape of Australia is best shown on the close-up map on page 428. It measures about 2500 miles from east to west, and 2000 from north to south. It is fairly flat. Most of the western half of the continent is a great desert plateau, where nothing grows but scrub bushes and a little coarse grass. There are wide ridges of sand and rock and low barren hills. Along the edges of this plateau are coastal lowlands, where there is more rain. Near the eastern coast of Australia, from north to south, runs the Great Dividing Range. This is mainly hilly land, which rises to a small mountain area in the south. Most of the rivers in Australia rise in these mountains and flow westward toward a great lowland basin. Between the dry lands of the western plateau and the Great Dividing Range are low rolling plains. Winds from the east drop their moisture on the Dividing Range, and there is little rain to the west. Most of the rivers which flow down the western slopes grow smaller as they sink into the ground or dry up. Only in flood times do they carry enough water to reach the lakes

A load of lumber in the woods of Victoria, southeastern Australia





Global view of Australia, New Zealand, and Indonesia

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which you see on the map. Lake Eyre, the largest, is a salt lake, with no outlet. The largest river is the Murray, with its northern branch, the Darling. The Murray is large enough for river traffic, but ocean vessels cannot travel up the river because of large sand bars in the lake into which it flows at the coast. This southeastern corner of Australia, watered by the Murray and its smaller streams, is a rich agricultural region. Here are groves of citrus fruits, vineyards, wheat fields, and farms, besides sheep and cattle ranches.

Parts of Australia have a sunny, temperate climate. The seasons are just the opposite of ours. December, January, and February are the summer months, because Australia is south of the equator. The northern part of Australia lies in the tropics, where it is always warm. Heavy monsoon rains along the north and northeast coasts make the summers hot and steamy. In Queensland there are tropical plants, tree ferns, vines, and flowers. Farther south along the east coast, fresh sea winds temper the heat, and nights are often cool even



Australia with an inset map showing its relation to Southeast Asia and the islands

in summer. Winter brings snow to the mountains, and winter sports call people from the cities.

Australia has 7,000,000 people. This is not many for so large a country. Most of them live in the southeastern section, where the great cities of Brisbane, Sydney, Melbourne, and Adelaide are located. Find these cities on your map.

The west coast has few people compared with this region, and Perth is the only large city. Still fewer people live on the north coast. The central desert is called the *bush*, because little grows here except a low, scrubby plant called *saltbush*. Here still live some of the natives of Australia, called the *Blackfellows*. They have brown skin and black wavy hair, and are of medium height. The Blackfellows have no agriculture, no domestic animals except dogs, and no villages. They are roving hunters and fishermen. Many of them wear no clothing even in cold weather, but in some

regions they wear animal skins. They kill their game with a club, a spear, or an oddly curved throwing stick called a boomerang. This is a handy weapon—a hunter throws it to kill a game bird, and if it misses its mark it returns and lands near the thrower. It is strange to find people living in the world today very much as the earliest men must have lived, long before history was written. These native Australians have a store of legends and nature knowledge, and their tribes have many rules and ceremonies. If given a chance to develop slowly in their own way, they might add their share to civilization. But they have been decreasing in number, and may instead disappear.

Strange Animals and Birds

The animals of Australia are unlike those of any other continent. One of the best known is the *kangaroo.* The kangaroo has been called "the animal which jumps when he walks, sits down when he stands, and carries his young in his pocket." The kangaroo travels by jumping on his strong hind legs, guiding himself with his long tail. When he stands still the tail props him up, as if he were sitting on a three-legged stool. The kangaroo is timid and depends on his speed to escape from his enemies. He is not easy to catch for he has keen sight and smell and can hear an enemy at a great distance. But if cornered he will defend himself bravely, striking hard blows with his muscular hind legs. He eats herbs, grass, and leaves, living on the grassy plains or in the thick forests. The baby kangaroo is very tiny when he is born. He creeps through his mother's fur into the warm skin pocket on the underside of her body. Here he lives, safely carried about by his mother until he grows his own fur coat. When he is strong enough to come out of his nest, he

Kangaroo with young in her pocket





Koala with young on her back

nibbles grass beside his mother until the first sign of danger. Then he dives headlong into her pouch again, drags his long tail and awkward legs inside, and turns around to look out at the enemy.

Everybody likes the *koala*, which looks exactly like a child's Teddy bear. He has big, round, comical ears and an awkward way of walking. He is a good climber and spends much time in the eucalyptus, or gum, trees, the shoots and leaves of which are his food. He sleeps in the daytime in the top of some eucalyptus tree. The mother koala, like the kangaroo, carries her baby in her pouch until he can take care of himself. After that he often rides on her back, holding on with his paws.

One of the strangest of Australian creatures is the *platypus*. He has a wide, flat bill like a duck's, and webbed feet. The bill is used for catching water insects and worms and for finding shellfish. His whole body, except feet and bill, is covered with fur. This fine fur sheds water easily. His tail is shaped like a paddle and helps him to swim. He lives like a beaver, gathering his food in waters of creek or river, and digging a burrow in a river bank for a nest. The main entrance to the burrow is under water to prevent other animals from entering. Another entrance is usually hidden by bushes. In this burrow the mother platypus makes a nest and lays her eggs, usually two, and keeps them covered until they hatch.

The lyrebird



Australia has many strange birds. The *lyrebird* is named for his feathers. These trail behind when he walks. But when he dances, on his specially built dancing mound in some ferny spot, he throws his tail feathers over his back. Then the two outer plumes take the shape of the frame of a lyre, and the inner feathers of shimmering gray resemble the strings. He does not use his wings to fly but

is a swift runner. He is a large bird, with powerful claws for digging. Besides giving his "drilk, drilk" call, he knows the notes of a dozen different birds and can imitate the sound of an ax or a saw, the barking of a dog, and the blare of a motor horn.

Other Australian birds are as small and bright as butterflies. There are many kinds of parrots and cockatoos. Then there is the emu, a bird that looks much like an ostrich and stands five to six feet high.

In the forest are flying squirrels also, and strange bats called flying foxes, or fruit bats, which eat flower buds and fruit. They sleep during the day, hanging head downward from the branches of trees. Truly the little continent "down under" is a museum of strange forms of life.

Australia's Beginning and Its Government

Australia is a new country, with a short history. Dutch explorers from the East Indies were the first to sail along its coast. But the Dutch did not claim or colonize Australia. The English explorer, Captain Cook, sailed up the east coast in 1770, landed, and claimed the country for Great Britain. But no settlers came to live in the new land for a number of years. Then England decided to send debtors and criminals to live in Australia. In 1788 a shipload of prisoners was landed in Botany Bay, and other shiploads followed. These first settlers were not all what we should call criminals. Some were in prison because of political quarrels, and others owed debts they could not pay. Here in Australia they were allowed to work on the land. After seven years of service many were set free. They were granted land and became valuable citizens of the new country.

In the nineteenth century free settlers began to arrive in Australia. At their request the British government stopped sending prisoners to these colonies. Then gold was discovered in the mountains and this brought a rush of fortune hunters. Meanwhile men were finding out that Australia was a fine place for sheep and for cattle. This brought more people to the country.

Building the government. By 1850, about one hundred years ago, there were prosperous colonies in several places on the coast of Australia. Britain had learned something by losing her American colonies, and allowed the Australian colonies to govern themselves. In 1901 these colonies, or states, united to form the Commonwealth of Australia. By the constitution the legislature has two parts, a Senate and a House of Representatives, both elected by the people. The prime minister, however, is chosen by the legislature. The Commonwealth of Australia is one of the British Dominions. The Australian people give loyalty to the English king, but their government is entirely independent.

The largest cities of Australia are the capitals of the states. Locate the states and their capitals on your map on page 428: Perth in Western Australia, Adelaide in South Australia, Brisbane in Queensland, Sydney in New South Wales, Melbourne in Victoria, and Hobart on the island of Tasmania. The arid Northern Territory has so few inhabitants that it is not a state and so has no vote in the legislature. Sydney and Melbourne are the largest cities, each with over a million people.

When the states united, both Sydney and Melbourne wished to be the seat of government. To settle the difficulty a new capital, which is named Canberra, was built between the two. Nearly a thousand square miles were set aside as the Australian National Territory,

belonging to none of the states. Is this like our District of Columbia? Canberra was carefully planned from the beginning, and was laid out and planted with beautiful trees and shrubs to make it a garden city. All departments of the Dominion government are located here. Other territories under the Australian government are the region of Papua in New Guinea, the mandate of New Guinea, and other islands.

Australia's Wool and Meat

Australia produces a large part of the world's wool. Some sheep are raised along the west coast, but the great sheep-raising section is in the southern part of the Great Plains region and the nearby hills. New South Wales is the center of the industry. Here for many years men have studied how to produce more and better wool. Fine sheep were brought from South Africa and given great care. Today Australian sheep produce more wool than those of any other country, and the wool is famous for its fine quality.

Sheep ranches must be large in a country where grass is scarce, as is the case in Australia. Australian ranches are called stations, and some of them cover several thousand square

Parliament House at Canberra, the capital of Australia





Shearing time

miles. In regions where the creeks dry up, water is pumped from wells into tanks for the sheep. Shearing is done by special workers, who move from one station to another, like the men in our story. The clipped wool is separated into different grades in the shearing sheds, and sent by truck or railroad to the selling center. In the big warehouses a man called a broker sees that each bale is weighed, and sends the record back to the owner. At regular times public sales are held. Buyers come to the selling center to purchase wool in large quantities, which they in turn sell to textile mills all over the world.

Sheep-raising has its problems. In Australia, one of these problems is the rabbit. Rabbits increase faster than sheep, and eat the tender green growth which would feed the sheep, as Cary told George in the story. Millions of rabbits are killed each year, and their meat and fur are exported, but the problem is not yet solved. With both sheep and rabbits nibbling at the green shoots, the saltbush which covers the plains dies out, and only desert then remains. For that reason Australia's deserts are growing.

Cattle are raised all over eastern and northern Australia. The great cattle ranches are in the northern part of the Great Plains and the Western Plateau. Queensland is the greatest cattle state. The regions near the east coast have fairly heavy rainfall, so there is often water in the rivers and streams. West of the mountains the water sinks below the surface of the soil, but is held in an underground basin. When a deep hole is bored, the water rises to the surface. This is called an *artesian* well. This artesian water is unfit for



Cattlemen drive stock to market

agriculture, because it contains too many mineral salts, which also make it very unpleasant to taste. But it is harmless to cattle, and they do not seem to mind the taste. Artesian wells provide water for many of the great cattle stations.

The most difficult problem of cattle-raising is distance. Many of the stations are far from the packing plants on the coast, and from the railways which take cattle to market. The animals must be driven hundreds of miles "on the hoof." This is an important part of the work of the herdsman. He drives his herd of cattle, called a "mob" in Australia, along the lonely routes of the interior. He travels about twelve miles a day, letting cattle graze along the strip of ground called the "stock route." When possible, he camps at places where there is water, and "rides herd" at night to keep anything from frightening his beasts. Sometimes he must use all his wits and ride with great speed to head off stampedes.

Australians are great meat-eaters and use about three quarters of all the beef, veal, and lamb they raise. The rest is shipped to other countries, either chilled or frozen, in great refrigerator ships. Besides meat, the refrigerator ships which leave Australian ports carry millions of pounds of butter and cheese. Dairy cattle can be raised only in the more temperate regions, chiefly along the eastern coast, where there is enough rain to produce good pasture.

Wheat and flour are also important exports. Wheat is the most important crop of Australia. Some wheat is grown in southwestern Australia, but most of it grows in the southern and southeastern part of the Great Plains region. The wheat is cultivated and harvested over wide areas by the use of farm machinery. Here Australia faces another problem—wind and water erosion. When the cover of scrub trees and wild grass is removed and the soil is stirred up, it may be washed into gullies by falling rain. During the dry season after the crop is harvested, the strong winds of Australia catch up the precious top soil and send it drifting into desert dunes.

Other field crops in Australia are barley, corn, sugar cane, sugar beets, cotton, tobacco, and rice. Of these only sugar is exported. Many kinds of fruit grow in Australia: apples, peaches, pears, apricots, oranges, lemons, pineapples, and an abundance of grapes. Dried fruits are exported in quantity, together with some fresh fruits, especially apples. Hobart,

on Tasmania, ships more apples than any port of the mainland.

Australia has valuable forests of hardwoods in her mountain ranges, and exports timber. Mines yield gold, silver, lead, copper, iron, and coal. Iron and coal, we already know, are valuable for manufacturing.

Industry is growing. While Australia has been chiefly agricultural in the past, manufacturing has increased rapidly. Wheat had to be milled into flour, and enormous amounts of farm machinery were needed as well. This was the beginning of manufacturing in Australia. During the Second World War, when shipping was scarce, Australia learned the value of having factories of her own, and many new factories are now running. Almost everything from cameras to airplanes is made in Australia. Many well-known manufacturing firms from Britain and the United States have built branch factories in Australia to make goods for countries in that part of the world.

Australia's Dominion Neighbor

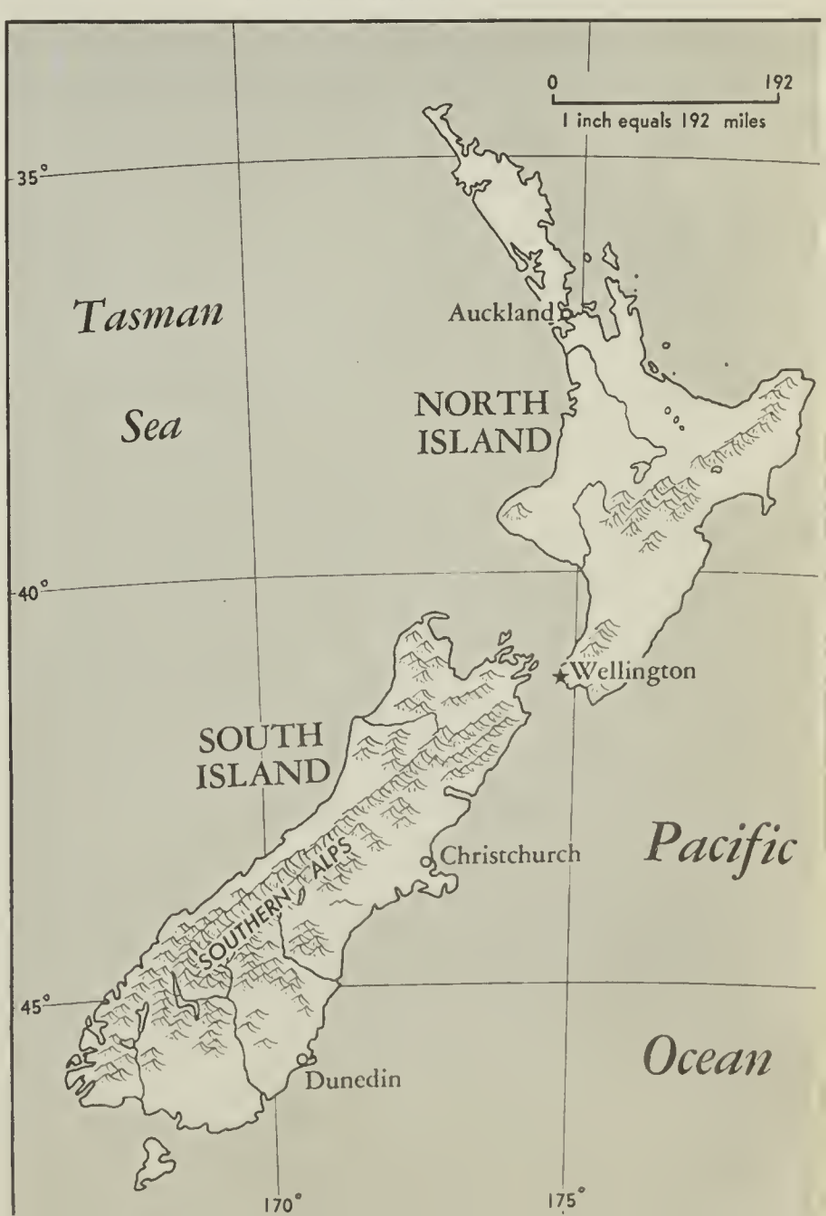
About a thousand miles southeast of Australia lie the islands of New Zealand. Locate them on the globe picture on page 427 and then study them on the map on this page. They are about the size of the British Isles, and both the large islands are mountainous. North Island has volcanoes more than 9000 feet high, with hot springs and geysers like those in Yellowstone Park. South Island has no volcanoes, but has great, snow-capped ranges, with peaks that rise to 14,000 feet. In these New Zealand "Alps" are glaciers, mountain lakes, and waterfalls.

New Zealand has a climate like that of our Pacific Northwest. Few wild animals are to be found. In the forests grow hardwoods, tree ferns, and plants found nowhere else in the world.

The main industry has been sheep-raising, but cattle-raising and dairying are growing steadily. Frozen beef and lamb, and also dairy products, are being shipped in even greater quantity than wool.

The native Maori people, who lived in New Zealand before the British took the islands, are Polynesians, as are the natives of the Hawaiian Islands. According to their legends, the early Maoris came overseas from central Pacific islands by long canoe voyages. The Maoris take an active part in the life of modern New Zealand. In recent years the other New

New Zealand



Zealanders have treated them as equals and citizens. The Maoris have therefore had a chance to develop their talents. Some have been elected to the New Zealand Parliament, and many others have become successful doctors, lawyers, judges, and architects.

New Zealand is a member of the British Commonwealth, a dominion with a separate government. It is a modern nation with a well-educated population. The city of Wellington, on the southern end of North Island, is the capital of New Zealand.

New Guinea

North of Australia lies New Guinea. You can locate it on the map on page 403 and also on the globe picture on page 427. On your map this island looks like an enormous crouching dragon. Its long neck and head, with open mouth, reach westward toward Celebes and Java. The tip of its long tail is more than 1500 miles to the east of its head.

New Guinea is near the Indonesian islands. Its trees, plants, and birds are much like theirs, but its animals are different. The animals of New Guinea are like those of Australia, the island continent to the south. Some scientists think New Guinea was once joined to Australia.

New Guinea is a land of high, rugged mountains and flat, swampy jungles. The central range contains some of the highest peaks in the world, with sheer cliff walls 10,000 feet high.

There are three types of native people. Almost all of them are dark-skinned with frizzled hair. They grow fruit and vegetables for their own use. Among the mountains live tribes of Negritos, or "small blacks," a peaceful, agricultural people. For hunting they use bows and arrows, stone hatchets, and knives. In the south and west live somewhat taller people. They are hunters and fishermen and skilled boatmen; some of their long canoes will hold fifty men. On the north and east coasts live the largest and strongest people of New Guinea, who are more advanced in their culture than their neighbors. They carve wood beautifully and make pottery, and they have musical instruments like drums, flutes, and wooden gongs.

There are few Europeans or Americans in New Guinea. The island was claimed less than a hundred years ago by men from three countries: the Netherlands, Germany, and Great Britain. Today the western half is Dutch territory. The southeastern part, called Papua, belongs to Australia. The northern part was once a German colony, and is now an Australian mandate.

There are no railroads or highways on the island, and no cities or great harbors. We find only villages and a few small port towns, of which Port Moresby is the best known. Coconut plantations produce copra for export and there are also some rubber plantations.

Study Questions

1. Where is Australia located and about how large is it?
2. In what part of Australia do most of the people live?
3. What is the *bush*, and what kind of people live there?
4. How and when was Australia settled?
5. How old is the Commonwealth of Australia?
6. What are the most important products of Australia?
7. What are some of the problems of raising sheep and cattle in Australia?
8. What kinds of fruit are raised, and what other crops?

9. What metals and minerals come from Australia's mines?

10. How large are the islands of New Zealand, and what kind of climate do they have?

11. What are the chief industries?

12. Who governs the islands?

13. What kind of country do we find in the large island of New Guinea?

14. What are the people like, and how do they live?

Questions to Think About

1. Why did the free settlers ask Great Britain to stop sending prisoners to Australia?

2. Should you think Australians would be much like Americans, or not? Why?

3. Why do you think Europeans settled Australia and New Zealand so long after the other continents?

Interesting Things to Do

1. Pretend you are visiting in Australia and write a letter to a friend, telling what interests you most about the country.

2. See if you can find out more about the Blackfellows of Australia. How far can they throw a boomerang? What kind of stories do they tell their children? Perhaps a librarian can help you find such information.

3. Collect pictures of scenery from different parts of Australia and New Zealand. Do any of them look like the United States?

4. Choose several people to report to the class on other strange animals of Australia not discussed in this chapter. The librarian can help you find pictures to illustrate the reports.

5. Draw an outline map of Australia on the blackboard, sketch in the states, and mark the important cities. Make a small picture in each state to indicate the most important occupation or product, and tell what part of our own country, if any, it most nearly resembles.

A Sentence Game

How carefully have you read your chapter? Can you copy these sentences into your notebook, choosing the correct ending, without looking back into the text to make sure?

1. Canberra, the capital, is
   - the largest city in Australia.
   - in none of the states.
   - a busy harbor city.

2. One of the problems of sheep-raising is
   - disease.
   - lack of water.
   - rabbits.

3. The prime minister of Australia is
   - appointed by the British king.
   - chosen by the legislature.
   - elected by the people.

4. The great cattle state is
   - Queensland.
   - Perth.
   - Victoria.

5. Australia's chief cattle-raising problem is
   - distance from packing plants.
   - cattle thieves.
   - dust storms.

6. New South Wales is
   - famous for its butter.
   - a barren, desert region.
   - the center of the sheep industry.

7. Wellington is
   - the most important port of New Guinea.
   - the capital of New Zealand.
   - the capital of the state of Queensland.

21. Africa: the Long Road Ahead



A Story · The Strength of a Chief

The paddlers swung their brown arms, and the canoe sped down the stream. Mpombo sat erect in the center looking straight ahead. The canoe was a large log, hollowed out and shaped at the ends. On both sides of the stream the banks were thickly overgrown with shrubs and tangled vines. Overhead the trees met across the stream, but here and there streaks of sunlight shot between the leaves and turned the water to gold. Birds screamed in the leafy shadows. Monkeys chattered and swung from branch to branch almost over the gliding boat. Now and then a crocodile slid from the bank into the stream with a splash.

But Mpombo did not notice the crocodiles, the birds, or the monkeys. He was thinking, and there was much to think about. It is not an easy thing to leave home and family, village and tribe, and go among strangers. It is not easy even when you are tall and strong, and nearly a man, as Mpombo was. Mpombo would not mind fighting an enemy, for he knew how to do that. But he worried about the thing that he now faced, this new life among white men. For the ways of the white man were strange. His food, his houses, his customs, these would be hard for Mpombo to learn to like. His father had decided the matter, however, and Mpombo never dreamed of disobeying. His father was the chief, and there was no wiser chief among the Obongi people, thought Mpombo. He lifted his head proudly.

As the stream wound through the jungle it grew wider, and presently flowed into the river. The river was wide and very brown with mud. Soon they would reach the mission station. "Courage," thought Mpombo to himself, "courage is necessary for the son of a chief." He was tired from days of travel, but still he held himself erect. There beyond the curve of the river a square of white gleamed against the dark green of the forest. It was the mission station. The journey was over. A few minutes later the heavy boat slid in close to the shore, and the paddlers sprang out and pulled it up on the bank. Mpombo stepped ashore and looked about him.

On a wide level place stood many wooden buildings, some large and some small. On each side were groves of banana trees and planted fields. Beyond these, surrounding the clearing, rose the unbroken green wall of the forest. In which of those buildings would he find the Great White Doctor?

From one of the buildings came a group of boys, laughing and calling to each other. One of them, older and taller than the rest, caught sight of Mpombo, stopped, turned, and walked toward him. As the boy drew near a feeling of gladness swept through Mpombo. For the boy was Draga, one of his own village people, who had come to the mission station two years before. Then there were questions and answers, as Mpombo told his friend why he had come, and asked the way to the Doctor.

"Come with me," said Draga. "This is a good time to see the Doctor. He is my friend, and he will be yours, too."

Draga led the way toward a low, white house with a screened porch. Inside, a tall thin man sat at a table covered with papers. He wore a loose, white suit. His hair was white, too, but his eyes, when he looked up at the boys, were black and deep, and his smile drew lines in his face.

"This is Mpombo, the son of Kalini, the chief of our village," said Draga.

The Doctor looked kindly at Mpombo.

"What can I do for the son of Kalini?" he asked, speaking in Mpombo's own language.

"I want to go to school," said Mpombo, "and learn the white man's wisdom."



The Doctor leaned back and looked steadily at him, and Mpombo's eyes looked straight back at the Doctor.

"I know Kalini," said the Doctor. "Ten years ago I made a journey through the country of the Obongi. I visited your village and talked with your father when you were a little boy. I asked him to send his son to our school, and he said 'No.' "

"These are the words of my father's message," said Mpombo. " 'When the white teacher came to us, our people were happy. They had no need of the white man. If my son goes with you, I told him, he will learn new wisdom, but he will forget the ways of the village. He will no longer follow the customs of the tribe. He will lose the love of his people and be no longer fit to lead them. Oil and water do not mix. So it is with the laws of the white man and the black man. For my son I choose the ways of his own people, that he may be a strong chief and rule well.' "

"Yes, Mpombo," said the Doctor, "those were Kalini's words. Why has he changed his mind?"

"Listen again," said Mpombo. "These are my father's words also. '*To know when to cling to the old, and when to turn to the new, this is true wisdom. And wisdom is the strength of a chief.* Many things have changed since that day. No longer do the white men stay at the mission, or at the lumber camp, or at the mine. Now they fly above the forest with mighty wings and a noise like thunder. They build their camps in our forest, in the desert, on the hills. They have taken our land. The white man has brought machines of strange magic. He makes well, but he also makes sick. He builds, but he also destroys. He heals, but he also kills. What can the Obongi people do? Only one thing. If we would keep our land, we must learn the white man's secrets. Kalini sends his son to you to learn the white man's healing and the white man's law.' "

The Doctor listened to every word of Kalini's message. Then he said, "So you want to learn law and medicine. To learn either one will take a long, long time. But Kalini is right, Mpombo. Mighty changes are coming to Africa. Your people have many things to learn if they would find their place in the world of today."

Mpombo was silent.

"And you shall go to school this very day," continued the Doctor. "First you shall find out what this school can give you; then we will talk about a higher school, and law or medicine. For you, Mpombo, as for Africa, there is a long road ahead. You will indeed need all the courage and all the strength of a chief."

Why Did Western Civilization Come So Late to Central Africa?

The story of Mpombo takes place in central Africa. Why is it that much of Africa has been so slow to learn about Western civilization? Let us see what the maps show us. First be sure you know just where the continent of Africa is located. Look for it on the globe pictures on pages 15 and 18. Notice that it lies directly south of Europe and the Mediterranean Sea. Where does it join Asia? Where does it nearly touch Europe?

Now turn to the map of Africa on page 443, and let us see what it will tell us about this huge continent. We can learn four things from this map, which will help us to understand at once why settlers from Europe did not carry their civilization into Africa in early times.

First, the coast line of Africa is very even. What seas and oceans wash the coasts of Africa? Find the part known as the Gulf of Guinea. We have learned that civilized ways have often spread inland from a good harbor, and Africa has very few good bays or harbors.

Second, most of the continent is a plateau. European explorers, who might have sailed up the rivers into Africa, found the way blocked by waterfalls.

Third, Africa is the hottest continent. Notice that it is equally distant from the north and south poles. The equator cuts straight across the center of Africa. For some distance on either side of the equator the climate is very hot, with heavy rainfall, except in the highland region of the east. Because of the great heat, Africa has not been an easy place for Europeans to live. The damp central section of the Congo River Basin and west to the Gulf of Guinea is a country of dense, steamy forests. The northern part of the continent is hot desert.

Fourth, Africa is the second largest continent. It is four times as large as Australia, and more than three times as large as Europe. We may be sure that it would take a long time for Western ways and new ideas to reach the heart of the continent, just as it did in Asia. European ships sailed around the coast of Africa on the way to the East Indies. Small trading posts were located here and there along the coast, but little was known of the interior, or inland, regions. Until less than one hundred years ago the map of Africa looked much as it looks in the map on page 157. Here you can see the small settled areas. Notice what they are.

Giraffes on the plains of Africa



Earliest European explorers and traders. Egypt, in the northeast corner of Africa, was one of the ancient "cradles" of civilization. From Egypt and other Mediterranean lands, civilization spread along the northern coast of Africa. But this culture spread southward very slowly because of the great desert barrier. The Portuguese were the first Europeans to sail all the way around Africa, in the fifteenth century, searching for a route to the Spice Islands and India. They started trading posts in the southern part of Africa, which became the colonies of Angola on the west coast, and Mozambique on the east coast. The Dutch later made a settlement at the Cape of Good Hope, at the southern tip of the continent. Many years afterward this territory was taken by the British. During the last part of the eighteenth century other European trading posts were established on the coast, but they did not spread inland. Trade on the west coast of Africa was the most prosperous. This trade was in gold, ivory, spices, and slaves. The slave trade which was the most important was carried on by European and American "slavers" for many years, and was not forbidden until the nineteenth century.

Two great explorers. In 1840 David Livingstone, an Englishman, went to Africa. He began his work in Africa as a missionary, and later became an official of the British government. Livingstone was a doctor, and for many years he traveled up the rivers and through the jungles of central and southern Africa, where no European had ever been. He lived among savage tribes, curing their diseases and helping them in other ways. Several times he came back and told of the people and places he had seen. He urged people to put an end to the cruel slave trade, which still continued in central Africa. He made maps of countries and mountains and rivers which had been completely unknown to the rest of the world. Then on one of his trips he disappeared. No one knew where he was, and people thought that he was probably dead.

An American newspaper sent a man named Stanley to search for him. Stanley pushed into unknown country, following the few clues he had, hearing now and then from the people some story of the work of the "great doctor." After many adventures he did at last find Dr. Livingstone. The story of these two explorers was published in newspapers and books all over the world. After Livingstone died, Stanley continued to explore and to bring back his reports to Europe and the United States.

The race for African land. As these and other reports became known, the governments and businessmen of Europe began to understand that this continent was well worth exploring. Several countries sent explorers to Africa. Missionaries went, too, and started schools and hospitals. Trading companies and governments sent agents to make treaties with African chiefs, treaties which gave to the European companies and nations rights over the African lands and their peoples. Sometimes the Africans refused to sign such treaties, and European soldiers were sent to take the land from the Africans. Groups of colonists from Europe migrated to settle in places where the climate was not too uncomfortable. Every nation of Europe that wanted overseas trade tried to add a part of Africa to its possessions. During the next twenty-five or thirty years the whole continent was divided up among the European nations in blocks and strips. None of the African tribes had been strong enough to resist the newcomers.


AFRICA
Plains
Hills
Plateaus
Mountains
Cairo Over 1,000,000 people
Alexandria 500,000 to 1,000,000 people
Pretoria 100,000 to 500,000 people
Monrovia Under 100,000 people
★ Capital of a country
0 675
One inch equals 675 miles
NORTH ATLANTIC OCEAN
SOUTH ATLANTIC OCEAN
INDIAN OCEAN
Mediterranean Sea
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
Red Sea
Gulf of Guinea
Rhine River
Danube River
Don River
Dnepr R.
Volga R.
Ural R.
Tigris R.
Euphrates R.
Nile R.
White Nile R.
Blue Nile R.
Niger River
Senegal River
Volta R.
Ubangi River
Congo River
Kasai R.
Zambezi R.
Limpopo R.
Orange R.
Vaal R.
Mozambique Channel
EQUATOR
TROPIC OF CANCER
TROPIC OF CAPRICORN
Tangier
SPANISH MOROCCO
Algiers
Tunis
Rabat
Tripoli
Bengasi
Alexandria
Suez Canal
Cairo
MOROCCO
ATLAS MTS.
TUNISIA
ALGERIA
LIBYA
EGYPT
ARABIA
RIO DE ORO
Villa Cisneros
SAHARA (DESERT)
FRENCH WEST AFRICA
Timbuktu
Dakar
GAMBIA
PORT. GUINEA
Freetown
SIERRA LEONE
LIBERIA
Monrovia
IVORY COAST
GOLD COAST
Accra
Kano
Lagos
NIGERIA
Ft. Lamy
FRENCH SUDAN
ANGLO-EGYPTIAN SUDAN
Khartoum
Asmara
ERITREA
PLATEAU OF ABYSSINIA
Addis Ababa
ETHIOPIA
FRENCH SOMALILAND
Berbera
BRITISH SOMALILAND
ITALIAN SOMALILAND
Mogadiscio
FERNANDO PO I.
RIO MUNI
ST. THOMAS I.
EQUATORIAL AFRICA
BELGIAN CONGO
CABINDA
Brazzaville
Leopoldville
Matadi
UGANDA
KENYA
Entebbe
Mt. Elgon
Mt. Kenya
Nairobi
Lake Victoria
Mt. Kilimanjaro
Mombasa
PEMBA I.
ZANZIBAR I.
Dar es Salaam
TANGANYIKA
Lake Tanganyika
Luanda
ANGOLA
Lobito
Elizabethville
Lake Nyasa
NORTHERN RHODESIA
Lusaka
Victoria Falls
Salisbury
SOUTHERN RHODESIA
NYASALAND
MOZAMBIQUE
Beira
SOUTHWEST AFRICA
Windhoek
BECHUANALAND
KALAHARI DESERT
TRANSVAAL
Pretoria
Johannesburg
Kimberley
UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA
SWAZILAND
NATAL
Durban
BASUTOLAND
ORANGE FREE STATE
CAPE OF GOOD HOPE
Capetown
Port Elizabeth
MADAGASCAR
Tamatave
Tananarive
20°
10°
0°
10°
20°
30°
40°
50°
30°
20°
10°

Africa is a huge continent. We should not be surprised to find there many different kinds of land and climate, and many different races of people. Study the map on page 443. Where do you find the greatest number of mountains? Where do you find the largest desert region? Can you locate another desert? What is the longest river in Africa? This is the second longest river in the world. Only the Missouri and the Mississippi together are longer than the Nile. Trace the Congo with its many branches. The region through which this great river flows is called the Congo Basin. It is the region of greatest heat and rainfall.

We can study Africa best by studying one section at a time, because of the great differences in the climate and physical form of the country.

The northern part of Africa is chiefly desert. The Arabs named this desert the Sahara, meaning "wilderness." It is about 1000 miles from north to south, and 3000 miles from the Atlantic Ocean on the west to the Red Sea on the east. Some parts of this wilderness are vast areas of sand hills, called dunes. They look almost like ocean waves, but are much higher, some of them three or four hundred feet high. These waves of sand drift and shift slowly with the wind, covering whatever lies in the hollows between. Find Libya in the central part near the northern coast. Here is one of these vast regions of dunes, reaching hundreds of miles. In other parts of the Sahara there are wide areas of rocky waste, of gravel, or of bare, sun-baked earth.

In the northwest, near the coast, locate the Atlas Mountains, two narrow chains lying side by side. They stretch through Morocco and Algeria into Tunisia. In the western part some peaks are more than 14,000 feet high. Toward

Camels on the sand dunes of the Sahara Desert





An irrigation ditch waters cotton fields and date trees in the Nile delta

the east, in Tunisia, are low hills. The Atlas Mountains are important because they catch the moisture of the winds that blow in from the Atlantic Ocean. Through all this hill country enough rain falls for crops and vineyards, and there is pasture for flocks and herds. This fertile highland, between the desert and the sea, the Arabs called the "Island of the West." It produces the food for millions of people in northwest Africa.

In the northeast we find another agricultural region, the land of Egypt. Egypt is a desert land with almost no rainfall, but, as you learned, for thousands of years the Nile has made it a fine farming country. The Nile brings its water from the great highland region farther south, where heavy rains fall. In the spring it brings down so much water that it overflows its banks, and spreads a fine fertile silt over the land through which it flows. Long, long ago the early Egyptians learned to irrigate their fields. They used a method called "basin irrigation," which is still used in some parts of Egypt. Water several feet deep is allowed to flood the field and remain for some weeks. Then it is drained off and the crop is planted. Beans and various grains are raised by this means. Ditch irrigation is also used now, and cotton, sugar cane, and vegetables are grown, two or three crops a year. Cotton of very fine quality is the chief crop, and a great deal of this is exported. Egypt is the only place in Africa where petroleum is produced in quantity.

Little grows in the Sahara but scrub such as thornbush. But here and there we find oases. Here may be date palms, orange groves, and some carefully tended gardens, irrigated from wells. Because of such spots, where water and food can be had, caravan routes have been able to carry trade across this wide desert for long ages.



The Nile is harnessed for modern irrigation and flood control

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South of the Sahara, almost from ocean to ocean, stretches the Sudan. This is a grassland region, which receives some rain, mostly in summer. It is not so bare and dreary as the Sahara. The level or gently rolling plains are covered with desert plants, and farther south with prairie grass, scattered trees, and patches of low forest. Nomads rove across the Sudan, pasturing flocks of sheep and goats, and in the southern part are planted fields.

The eastern part is a highland region through which flows the Upper Nile. Many dams have been built on the Nile for irrigation, and cotton is raised. This part of the Sudan is under joint control of Britain and Egypt, and is called the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan. The dams were built by the British, and much of the cotton goes to British cotton mills. In these highlands are forests from which much of the world's supply of gum arabic is obtained. This valuable gum is used in the making of candy, glue, and ink, and to put a finish on some kinds of paper and cloth.

The people of North Africa are of several races. The early Egyptians were of one race, and the Arabs who came into North Africa in large numbers were of a different race. Nomad tribes of both these races have roamed through the Sudan with their flocks for centuries. There are also many Negroes and peoples related to the Negroes. They are mostly farmers, who have also learned stock-raising from the Egyptian and Arab nomads, and now have sheep and goats of their own.

Tropical forest lands. The farther south we go the heavier the rainfall, until we reach the great rain forests near the equator. In the northwest this tropical forest borders the coast north of the Gulf of Guinea. Trace the Niger River. It rises in the grassland country and flows through forests into the gulf. The coast along the north of the gulf is hot and wet, and it is thickly settled with different groups of Negro people. There are some European settlements and trading stations, however, which deal in the valuable products of the region. Mahogany and ebony woods and rubber from the forests are exported. Palm nuts, valued for their oil, are gathered from wild trees in the forest, and are also grown on plantations.

One of the most important crops of this coast is the cacao bean. A large part of the cacao beans of the world come from the ports of West Africa and from St. Thomas, a little



Women workers at a soap factory stir cacao paste while the children play

island in the Gulf of Guinea sometimes called the "chocolate island." The cacao trees grow in the jungle, or are set out in plantations with other trees to shade them. Waxy blossoms appear on the trunk and branches, and later these are followed by heavy pods containing a sweet pink pulp and rows of fat purple seeds. The pods are brightly colored, changing from green to yellow and copper and red. When ripe they are gathered and broken with a hatchet. The seeds and pulp are spread out to ferment and dry. They must be turned by hand to dry evenly, and this tiring work is done by women. The dry, brown seeds are exported to factories where they are processed to make chocolate and cocoa, as we learned in our story of Holland.

What other valuable things has the world received from this coast? Can you tell by looking at the names of the colonies on the map on page 458? Ivory, as you know, is the material of which the tusks of elephants are made. By taking the tusks only from dead elephants men thought they could keep the herds from



African elephants, source of the world's finest ivory

disappearing. Now, however, people have begun to kill some of the elephants, for the herds are large and they damage the crops. About half our ivory comes from animals killed for this purpose. Beautiful things of many kinds have been made from ivory. Today most of it is used for piano keys, toilet articles, billiard balls, and chessmen. The Gold Coast was named by explorers who found gold in the gravel near the shore. Some gold is still produced and exported, but it is not so important as manganese ore and diamonds, both of which are found here.

East of the Gulf of Guinea the belt of dense tropical forests reaches through the Congo region. Notice how many streams, from the north, east, and south, pour their waters into the Congo River. This is an area of dense green rain forests, where trees of many varieties grow together, among them many valuable hardwood trees. The most important tree product from the forests of the Congo is the palm nut. The natives use the nuts as one of their chief foods, and also gather them for export. Palm oil, extracted from the nuts, is sent to Europe and North America to be used in making soap and margarine. Many of the world's diamonds come from the Congo. This region belongs to Belgium, and is usually called the Belgian Congo. Here in the Congo Basin and in the higher lands of Northern Rhodesia is one of the largest deposits of copper ore in the world.

Pygmies of the Congo. Most of the people of tropical central Africa are Negroes. But there are several groups of natives, living mostly in the Belgian Congo, called Pygmies. They are little people, not growing much more

than four feet tall, with skin somewhat lighter than that of the Negroes. They have no agriculture and no cattle, but depend for their living on just what they may find in the day's roaming. They gain their food and escape from their enemies by putting their wits to work. They trap large animals, such as the elephant, buffalo, and leopard, in cleverly hidden nets, or in pits covered with branches and leaves. Then with poisoned arrows or spears it is easy to kill the animal. They cross rivers by swinging from one side to the other on long ropes of twisted vines, fastened to trees. If a whole tribe must cross, they build bridges of such ropes, reaching from one great tree to another, and make stairways of sticks up the trunks of the trees. The Pygmies spend all their lives in the deep gloom of the forest, seldom seeing the sun.

Highland countries of East Africa. Suppose we enter the highlands of Africa through the Sudan, going east from British and Egyptian territory into Ethiopia. Locate this region on your map. Ethiopia was once called Abyssinia. It is a plateau land, broken by irregular mountain ranges. There is very little agriculture here, but some grain, cotton, coffee, and sugar cane are raised. Ethiopia lies just north of the equator, but, because it is high among the mountains, the climate is moderate. The country's minerals have not yet been produced in quantity.

This independent country was seized by the forces of Mussolini in 1935, before the Second World War. King Haile Selassie of Ethiopia, with help from other nations, was beginning to develop his country when it was invaded by the Italians. Troops from British South Africa

A chief and his bodyguard before a house in Ethiopia





Workers on an East African plantation harvest peanuts

drove out the invaders during the Second World War, and Ethiopia is again independent. There is only one railroad, but there are about 5000 miles of good hard roads, which may help the Ethiopians to develop their country.

South of Ethiopia is a highland region, where several states are owned by Great Britain. The climate here is much pleasanter than in the lowland along the coast to the east. On this lowland, with its heat and dampness, sugar and coconuts are grown for export. In the highlands there are grasslands where cattle are pastured. There are British and European plantations here, on which the work is done by natives. Corn, cotton, coffee, and sisal are raised. Sisal is a plant with fibers which are used to make rope. The plateau woodlands and tall grass areas are a famous hunting ground for big game. Elephants, rhinoceroses, lions, zebras, and giraffes are found here, and in certain places there are gorillas. If you see any of these animals at the circus or the zoo, you may know that they probably came from this eastern highland of Africa.

This is the area which holds Africa's great lakes and highest mountains. The lofty mountain range, although it lies across the equator, has many peaks that are always snow-covered. The Kenya plateau to the east rises in such peaks as Mt. Elgon, about 14,000 feet; Mt. Kenya, more than 18,000; and Kilimanjaro, about 19,500 feet high. Locate these peaks on your map. Find Lake Victoria, the largest of the lakes of this plateau. Amid these lakes and mountains the River Nile rises and begins its 4000-mile journey northward to the Mediterranean. Already the beauty of these mountains and lakes is well known. When the airplane has made travel easier in Africa, this may become a favorite resort of tourists.

South Africa is a plateau land. Along the southern and eastern coasts are mountain ranges. Notice especially the range in the southeast. These mountains are not so high as those farther north, but they catch the rainfall of the southeast trade winds from the Indian Ocean. This section of South Africa has heavy rainfall. In the lowlands along the eastern coast there are many sugar, cotton, and tobacco plantations. South Africa has a comfortable temperate climate. In protected valleys citrus fruits are raised, and also pears, grapes, and peaches. Where there is more heat and moisture, pineapples, mangoes, and bananas are grown. Fruit is shipped to Europe from South Africa.

Back from the coast and upon the plateau is the dry Kalahari Desert region. North of the desert is rolling grassy land called the *veld*. Some sections are covered with a growth of short stunted trees, and these are called the *bush*, as in Australia. On these dry uplands we are not surprised to find flocks of sheep and goats. There are also a large number of ostrich farms. A certain low scrubby plant, which grows here plentifully in the wet seasons, makes good pasturage for ostriches as well as for the animals. The sheep of South Africa are noted for their fine wool. The goats are of the famous Angora variety, brought from the Anatolian Plateau in Turkey. Their long glossy hair is used in making velvet and plush and imitation fur.

Gold and diamonds. How would you like to walk about your farm and pick up a small stone worth $2500? The children of a Dutch farmer in South Africa did that. The stone proved to be a diamond, and its discovery was one of the things which sent fortune hunters hurrying from Europe to the most southern part of Africa. Tons of diamonds have been exported from South Africa. Although in some years more are exported from the Congo, the diamonds of South Africa are usually finer. In the lands around the Orange River diamonds are mined by *panning*, as gold is panned. But more important are the diamonds which come from the "dry diggings." These are mined from far below the surface in what were the craters of old volcanoes. Kimberley, Pretoria,

A diamond mine in Pretoria, South Africa



and Johannesburg are the chief centers of diamond production. Can you locate these towns?

We think of diamonds as jewelry. But the chief value of the diamond is not for ornament but for industry. Diamonds are so hard that they take and keep a keen, sharp edge, most useful as a cutting edge for hard metals. The less beautiful diamonds are used for this. They are set in the edge of a hollow cylinder for drilling holes through rock. They are also placed around the opening in a die, through which copper is drawn to make fine wire. Nothing else is as good for such work as a sharp edge of diamonds. Because diamond tools wear out, there is a steady need for diamonds. Millions of dollars' worth are exported from Africa every year. Cutting diamonds, either for jewelry or for tool edges, is work requiring great skill. Trained diamond-cutters in Belgium and the Netherlands used to do almost all this work. During the Second World War the diamond-cutting industry moved to New York. Can you tell why?

Gold is the other valuable mineral product of South Africa. In the Transvaal is the richest gold-producing area in the world. Many thousands of men work in this great mining region. Johannesburg is the center of gold-mining activity. Some people believe that the rich veins of gold may soon be exhausted. But it is possible that South Africa can then depend in part on its exports of coal. For this is the only region in the continent which has a large amount of coal.

South Africa has three rivers. Can you find them on your map? The Orange River rises in the highlands, flows across the plateau, and empties into the South Atlantic. The Limpopo and the Zambezi flow into the ocean on the east coast. It was here that Doctor Livingstone spent many of his years among the natives. He followed the Zambezi River from its source to its mouth. It was he who

Capetown, important seaport of South Africa





Victoria Falls, the "falls of the sounding mist"

discovered and named Victoria Falls, in honor of Victoria, Queen of England. These falls are among the greatest in the world. The water drops nearly four hundred feet from the upper level of the Zambezi to the pool below. The roar of the falling waters can be heard for a long distance, and the natives called them "the falls of the sounding mist." The Zambezi flows through the coastal state of Mozambique, a Portuguese colony, into the Mozambique Channel. This is the name of the portion of the Indian Ocean between Africa and the island of Madagascar.

Madagascar is one of the world's largest islands. It belongs to France. Rice, cotton, sugar, and tobacco are grown, and vanilla and cloves are produced. Cattle are raised and hides are exported. Madagascar exports a great deal of graphite, the mineral which is used to make what we call "lead" pencils. Other products of the mines are gold, coal, copper, mica, and precious stones.

On your map do you see a sprinkling of very small islands to the northwest, between Madagascar and the African coast? Very close to the coast, find those of Zanzibar and Pemba. These are among the "spice islands" of today. Four fifths of the world's supply of cloves is grown here. The fragrance of the flowering clove trees drifts out to ships long before their passengers can see the islands.

The wealth of Africa. Going from one section to another of this great continent, we have learned something of what Africa has to give the world. Woods, cacao, and palm oil from the forests; gold, copper, diamonds, and minerals from the mines; leather, wool, and fine Angora goat hair from the widely-scattered flocks and herds; these are exported from Africa. The continent has large areas which would be excellent for agriculture, if they were developed, planted, and cultivated. Mighty rivers and waterfalls could supply hydro-electric power for industry. More of this kind of power is possible in Africa than in any other continent. But Africa has scarcely any industries yet. There are valuable minerals and metals in Africa which have hardly begun to be developed. For example, there are large quantities of *bauxite,* from which aluminum is made by electrical power. Much of the world's *uranium,* from which radium is produced, comes from the Congo. This is the mineral which was used in the manufacture of atomic bombs.

The people of Africa. The wealth of a country does not depend entirely on such things as soil and minerals and water power. It depends also on the people who live and work there. Who are the people of Africa? They are of many races and of mixed races. In the north we find Arabs and Egyptians. Along the eastern coast Arabs, Indians, and Malays have been settling and trading for centuries. In the east and south are British businessmen and plantation owners, Dutch farmers, French and Portuguese merchants, and a sprinkling of people from many other nations. But by far the greater part of the people of Africa are Negroes. Let us see what kind of people they are and how they live.

The Negro and His Life

The Negro is usually a farmer. He does his work by old methods. He prepares his ground by burning off the scrubby bushes, and cultivates it by hand with a hoe, just the way it was done centuries ago. He keeps his soil fertile by changing his crops: sorghum one year, peas the next year, beans the next. Or he may plant millet, or rice, or peanuts, or cotton. In his garden you would find corn, tomatoes, and sweet potatoes. Bananas he values highly as food, especially in central Africa.

He may have a flock of sheep or goats, and almost always some cattle. He uses the sheep and goat skins and the wool, or sometimes he sells them. The cattle, however, give very little milk, and the farmer does not value them for their meat. He uses them, instead, for money. A man is counted rich by the cattle he owns. When a girl gets married her family gives the husband a gift of cattle. Many Negro boys spend their time in the wide grasslands looking after the herds. While a boy is still young he begins to collect his own herd of cows. He prizes his cows for their color and for the size and form of their horns.

There are really too many cattle in Africa. They use a large amount of feed, and they are hard on the land. Where cattle have grazed steadily the ground begins to lose its covering of grass. Then erosion starts, and the land is damaged for crops.

Cattle cannot be raised in the hot damp forest belt, because of the tsetse fly. This insect lives in moist, warm, shady places. Its sting gives cattle a disease which kills them off rapidly. The tsetse fly's bite gives people the terrible sleeping sickness. It is one of the problems that must be solved before large areas of Africa can be developed.



A village in the Belgian Congo

Houses are of different kinds in different parts of Africa. The native uses the material that he finds at hand. In the East African highlands, where it is cold at night, the houses are low, thatched huts that look almost as if they had grown from the earth. The walls are of logs, placed upright, and the cracks between are filled with mud. The door is usually so low that people must stoop to enter. Smoke from the fire curls upward through the leaves of the thatch. The ground between the houses is beaten hard by the feet of men, cattle, and goats. The village itself is surrounded by a fence.

Some of the South African Negroes build hut frames of sticks, and cover them with long grass. In West Africa there are thatched huts. In the Niger Valley, where tin is mined, some of the houses are roofed with tin. Farther north, on the borders of the Sudan, houses are often built of mud. Kano, in Nigeria, is a city of 50,000 people. Both city wall and houses are built of mud cones baked hard by the hot sun of the dry season. The roofs are flat, with a low wall around the top. Gutter spouts through this wall carry the rain water, during the wet season, off the roof, so it will not soften the mud of the buildings.

The African Negro often has highly-developed crafts. Plaiting, netmaking, and the manufacture of vessels from the gourd are *house crafts*, carried on by a man and his family. Other crafts are *tribal crafts*, work carried on by a whole tribe or village, with special materials found in their neighborhood. A whole tribe may be weavers, or potters, or wood-



A Congo boy carves elephants on a tusk

workers, leather-dressers, ropemakers, or boat-builders. They trade what they make for things made by other peoples. Many African crafts, especially work done in gold, silver, and wood, have become fine arts. The simplest utensils are often made with great skill and care, and are decorated with beautiful designs. A worker will produce by his own hand a beautiful tool which is wholly his own, and which will last his lifetime.

The women are the friends and equals of the men. Work in the fields is divided between the men and women. All work that has to do with the preparation and provision of food belongs to the woman. The native mother has a busy day. She makes the pots, the gourd vessels, and the baskets. She grinds and pounds the grain, cooks the pots of greens for dinner, spins the cotton, and cares for the children. She

African girls grind corn



gathers the fruit and does much of the work in the fields in season. Busy as she is, she finds time to tell the children stories, and delightful and funny stories they are. The women join in the village dances with the men. They are quite as independent as the men, and may have their own property, separate from that of their husbands. Some of them have their own fields, or engage in trade. The men are farmers, shepherds, fishermen, traders, and hunters.

Christian missions have done valuable work in Africa. Many natives in the Sudan and West Africa have accepted the Moslem faith of the Arabs. Farther south many have become Christians. Christian missions have brought with them the Christian religion, and they have often brought much more. Many mission stations have not only a church but also a school and a hospital. Natives who have become Christians have had a chance at the mission to learn something about modern health protection, modern knowledge, and modern medicine. And many have brought this information back with them to their own villages.

How Is Africa Governed?

There are four independent countries in Africa: Egypt, Ethiopia, Liberia, and the Union of South Africa. Find these countries on the map on page 458.

Egypt is by law a constitutional kingdom. There is a parliament elected by the people. But a small group of wealthy leaders really runs the government, and the king is powerful. British representatives have had a great deal of power in Egypt. The Suez Canal, you see, owned by the British, opens a highway to the Indian Ocean. It is important for Britain that British ships should be able to go freely through the canal at all times. For this and other reasons Britain has used her money and power in Egypt and has been eager to keep any other strong nation from gaining control in this area.

Ethiopia is an old feudal country. The lords, or chiefs, have recently been losing their power to King Haile Selassie. He has wanted to see his country improve, and there is indeed much to be done before Ethiopia's resources can be developed. The roads which were built by the Italians, under Mussolini, need to be repaired and extended, and schools and hospitals are also needed.

Liberia is the only republic in Africa. The United States helped to found Liberia more than a hundred years ago by planting there a colony of freed American Negro slaves. Its government is patterned after ours, and our country has always taken an interest in its development. But it is a struggling little country with no railroads and hardly any modern industry. The country's development has depended to a great extent on the large rubber plantations. Monrovia, named for James Monroe, who was President of the United States at the time Liberia was founded, is the capital and largest town.

The Union of South Africa is one of the Dominions of the British Commonwealth. It has a governor-general, representing the King of England, and a Parliament with a House of Assembly and a Senate. Here in the Union of South Africa we can see clearly what is probably the biggest problem of Africa, the way in which a few white men rule the millions of native people. There are about eleven million people in the Union. Only a little more than two million of these are descended from Europeans. About eight million are of

the Negro race or related races, and about three hundred thousand are Asiatic. Only persons over twenty-one, "of European descent," may vote. The native people are "represented" in Parliament by four senators and a few members of the lower house, but they have no share in choosing these representatives.

The fact that most natives of Africa have nothing to say about how their countries are run is being studied very earnestly by

Colonies and independent countries in Africa



statesmen and other thinking people. The native people in Africa have done much of the hard work of developing their countries, but in the past it has been the Europeans who have gained most from that development.

The greater part of Africa is under the control of European governments. France and Britain have by far the larger part of the continent. Study the map on page 458 and see what territories these countries hold. French Africa is the largest. It covers almost all northwest Africa, and reaches to the equator. It also includes the large island of Madagascar. But we must remember that the Sahara and the Sudan have few people and scanty resources. The British holdings are richer and more important.

Parts of Africa are governed as mandates. Like the Pacific islands, most of these areas were German colonies. Now they are mandates of other nations. Find Tanganyika on your map. It is now governed by Great Britain.

North of the Union of South Africa are three South African territories, Basutoland, Swaziland, and Bechuanaland. These are governed by the British, and have a very small white population. They are called "protectorates," and are considered as special protected areas where the native people may live undisturbed in their own way.

What Lies Ahead for Africa?

Africa is the home of the Negro, but it has been seized, controlled, and governed by Europeans, mostly for their own benefit. Very little attention has been paid to the needs and desires of the natives themselves. But there has been coming into the world a new way of thinking. Two great wars have been fought in the first half of our century. During both of these wars much was said about the right of all peoples to govern themselves, or to choose their own governments. Surely the people of Africa have that right as well as other peoples. But many Europeans and Americans feel that the native Africans are not yet ready to govern themselves. How can they be prepared to make the most of their continent?

The African natives must have education. This will of course be a tremendous task. Very few of these people have ever gone to school. Many more schools are needed, and colleges to train teachers. The people will need to learn not only to read and write but many other things as well. They must be taught new methods of cultivating the ground and keeping the soil fertile. They will need to learn how to keep their houses and villages clean and sanitary, and how to fight such diseases as yellow fever, sleeping sickness, and malaria. We Americans and the Europeans must give these Africans what is really worth while in our own civilization, without taking away from them the fine and beautiful things which have long been part of their own culture.

The Africans have wise sayings, or proverbs, as well as interesting and amusing stories. One of their sayings is this: "A clever child is told proverbs, not stories." Many of their stories end with a question, such as "Who was really the wisest?" or "Who came out best in the end?" The native African, like everyone else, wants to find the answers to questions. Some day, when he has the chance, he will solve his own problems.

Money and knowledge are needed. It will take a great deal of money and scientific knowledge to develop the resources of Africa, to put the water power to work and to build great industries. The native people do not



College students in South Africa are trained to be teachers

yet have the money or the education to plan and to do these things. But this problem can be solved in time.

The Air Age too will help to make new conditions. In the Second World War two great air routes were opened across Africa, one along the northern coast, and one across central Africa from the Gold Coast to Egypt. Study again the global map on page 188. Airplanes may in the future partly make up for the small number of railroads and highways in Africa. They can help to bring distant parts of the continent together, and to bring modern ways of living to Africa.

Study Questions

1. Why was Western civilization so slow in reaching the interior of Africa?
2. What famous explorers brought Africa to the attention of the world?
3. Why did the governments of Europe wish to claim areas in Africa?
4. What kinds of climate and soil do we find in North Africa?
5. How are crops raised in Egypt?
6. What kind of country is the Sudan?
7. What is one of the most important crops of the coast of Central West Africa, and how is it produced?
8. How is ivory obtained?
9. What is the most important tree product of the Congo?
10. Where is Ethiopia and how is it governed?
11. Under what government are the highland regions south of Ethiopia, and for what are they famous?
12. What kinds of agriculture and stock-raising has South Africa?
13. What valuable products come from the mines of Africa?
14. What three rivers of Africa can you name, and in what region can each be found?
15. What can you tell about the African Negro, his house, his crops, his crafts?
16. What have you learned about the government of African countries?

Questions to Think About

1. What problems will have to be solved before Africa can have self-government?
2. Are the problems that must be solved in Africa at all like those of India? Can you think of one big problem that must be solved by both?
3. Africa used to be called the "dark continent." What reasons can you give for this name?
4. Do you think that the natives are or are not ready to govern themselves? Why?

Interesting Things to Do

1. Make a list of wild animals that you have seen in the zoo or at the circus. Find out about each one in the dictionary or encyclopedia and see how many of them are usually brought from Africa. Learn what you can of their habits, and how they are captured. Prepare a report to give to the class.
2. Pretend you are to take a trip by airplane

through Africa. You may make four stops to see the country. Decide what four places you will visit, and tell the class what you hope to see or do there.

3. Choose members of the class to read and report about men who should be in your *Twentieth Century Who's Who*. You will want to hear about Jan Christian Smuts, the South African statesman; and also about Albert Schweitzer, the brilliant musician and writer, who left Europe to become a doctor in the Congo. Perhaps you will think of others.

4. Find out all you can about how cacao beans are raised and prepared for export. Draw a series of cartoons showing chocolate all the way from the plant in Africa to your cup of cocoa. Ask at the library for magazine articles and pictures which will help you.

Pin-point Questions

Each of these numbered questions can be answered in one word. Copy the numbers in your notebook, and fill in the one-word answers.

1. What gems found in Africa are also used as tools?
2. What kind of tree, valued for its oily nuts, grows in the Congo forests?
3. What ore found in Africa is used to make aluminum?
4. What is another name for Ethiopia?
5. What valuable metal is mined in South Africa near Johannesburg?
6. What is the name of Africa's highest mountain peak?
7. What primitive African people have neither cattle nor agriculture?
8. What useful metal is found in great quantity in Central Africa?
9. What ore found in Africa is a source of atomic power?
10. What is raised for export in the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan?

A Matching Game

The numbered places in the first list belong with the lettered expressions in the second list. Write the numbered places in your notebook, and put the matching expression after each place.

1. Kano, Nigeria	*a.* "Island of the West"
2. Pemba and Zanzibar	*b.* "Cradle of civilization"
	c. "The chocolate island"
3. Kimberley	*d.* Diamond dry diggings
4. Sahara	*e.* A city of mud
5. St. Thomas	*f.* "Falls of the sounding mist"
6. Atlas Mountains	
7. Zambezi River	*g.* "Wilderness"
8. Egypt	*h.* "Spice islands of today"

22. Final Hilltop Views



Hilltop View of Some Southern Lands

From a hilltop again. In the unit you have just finished you have studied a great many countries, most of them near the equator or in the southern hemisphere. Nearly all these countries are colonial lands which have been under the control of European governments. Let us review them for a moment, dividing them into groups. Make two lists on a sheet of paper, or on the blackboard. Call the first list *Independent Countries*. In this column we will put Thailand, Egypt, and Ethiopia. These three countries have been independent for a long time. In this column also we will put Australia, New Zealand, and the Union of South Africa, all three self-governing dominions of the British Commonwealth. To these we will add the Philippine Islands and the Indonesian Republic, two new self-governing island countries. It is hard to place Liberia. It was founded more than a hundred years ago as an independent republic, but it has had great difficulty with its government, and requires help and protection.

The second and longer list we will call *Colonial Countries*. These are claimed, controlled, and governed by European nations. Make out this list from the maps on pages

403, 427, and 458. The future of these countries is one of the big problems which the world must solve. Some of these colonies have been held for a long time by the countries which now govern them. Others, like some of the African colonies, have been under foreign control less than a hundred years. Still others are mandates, colonies taken from Germany and entrusted to the care of other nations. In all of them the native people are far more numerous than the citizens of the countries which govern them. In all of them there are many problems to solve before the people can have enough food, good schools, and clean and healthful places in which to live. In most of these countries it will be a long time before the people can govern themselves without help and protection. Although a British Dominion, the Union of South Africa has the same problems.

What is the difference between an independent country and a free country? An independent country has its own government, instead of being owned, or governed, or "protected" by another nation. But whether that government allows its own people freedom or not is another question. Independence concerns nations, freedom concerns the people of a nation.

Look, for example, at Thailand. It has been an independent country with a government of its own for hundreds of years. But until very recently the people of Thailand were far from free. Hundreds of thousands of them were slaves. Even those people who were called "free" had to obey the king, who was an absolute ruler. Disobedience often meant quick death. Not until the twentieth century were all the slaves set free. Not until 1932 did the people receive a constitution providing for voting rights, a senate, and schools for all children. The people of Thailand are now on the way to freedom.

On the other hand, a country may begin to gain some freedom for its people before it becomes an independent country. Spain claimed the Philippines when they were discovered by Magellan early in the sixteenth century, and held them until 1898. At this time the Filipinos were fighting a revolution to gain their independence from Spanish rule. Then came the Spanish-American War, and at its close Spain had to give the islands to the United States. The Filipinos were disappointed when they were not given their independence. However, they were given some share in the government. A new colonial government was set up, with an American as governor-general of the Philippines. These governors and other American officials throughout the years did much to help the Filipinos develop their schools, agriculture, industry, and trade. Filipino officials were chosen and trained in government. From the first there was much discussion of independence for the Philippines. At last the United States Congress passed a bill which provided that the Philippines should elect their officials and govern themselves for ten years under the direction of the United States. At the end of this period the Philippines would become independent.

During this ten-year period came the Second World War, and the Japanese attacked and took the islands. Filipino and American soldiers together fought the terrible battle of Bataan Peninsula in which they were defeated. Even during the Japanese occupation the Filipinos continued to fight against the invaders. When the Americans returned, under the leadership of General MacArthur, the Filipinos joined them in the battle to free the islands from the Japanese. On July 4th, 1946, the ten-year period ended, and the Philippines received full independence. So you see that even before the Philippines were independent their people had gained much freedom.

The last and highest hilltop. We shall have to imagine ourselves climbing a still higher hill in order to look back over the whole way we have come. Do you remember the questions which started us on our journey around the world and through the centuries? Have we found the answers? Let us see. Here are the questions. Do the ideals we call American belong only to Americans? Or do they belong to all other people as well? Where did they begin? How did they grow? How did they happen to come to America and become known as American ideals?

We did not find the answers to those questions all at one time or all in one place. We found a little here and a little there. We pieced together the answers, very much as we might put together a jigsaw puzzle, making the frame and filling in the picture bit by bit. From our hilltop we are now able to see what the picture looks like. It is a picture of our world as it looks today. Looking at the world of today we see also how it came to be, and what it may become.

Four key words hold the secret of this picture. We might call them the four corner pieces of the puzzle. For we have found the answers to our questions by studying the meaning of these four words, as we traveled from century to century and from country to country.

The first word is *civilization.* We learned that civilization is constantly changing, constantly growing. It begins and keeps on growing because of the desire, planted deep in every heart, to make life better. Civilization grows by the solving of problems, just such problems as raising food, making clothing, building houses, and improving working tools. Whenever people try to make work easier, to find new ways of doing things, or to make life more pleasant and more interesting, they are working out some problem. Different countries and different periods have had different problems to solve. But there are always problems, and the goal is always the same, human happiness. That is what keeps people awake in mind and keeps civilization growing.

The second key word is *freedom.* In the Prologue we learned that people came to America in search of many kinds of freedom. From chapter to chapter we have studied different kinds of freedoms and the people who were willing to work or fight for them. We found out that "freedom looks two ways." Those who speak of freedom may be thinking of burdens *from* which they want to be free, hard living conditions *from* which they want relief. Or they may be thinking especially of certain activities *for* which they want to be free, opportunities which will enable them to improve the conditions under which they live and to find real joy in living. Freedom usually means *both* relief and opportunity.

The Greeks knew the value of freedom. They were constantly fearful that they would lose that precious freedom to some powerful ruler in their own state, or to some powerful neighbor state which might conquer them. The Romans attempted to guard the freedom of Roman citizens by a well-planned system of law and government. In the Europe of the Middle Ages there was little freedom. But the New Birth of learning slowly dawned, like the light of a new day, and people began to think more deeply about freedom and to work toward it. There were many burdens from which they longed to be free, burdens such as tyrannical rulers, unjust laws, heavy taxes, and religious persecution. There were many opportunities for which they longed: freedom to go where they wished, to choose their own

kind of work, to worship God in their own way, to help to make the laws and to help to choose their leaders. The desire and struggle for such freedom as this led to the signing of the Magna Charta, the Bill of Rights, the Declaration of Independence, and the Declaration of the Rights of Man. Do you remember in which country each of these great papers was written?

The third word is *co-operation.* Long ago men found out that by working together they could do many things which one man alone could not do. Thus they learned to co-operate in the solution of their problems. In early times many men together could dig an irrigation system to bring water to their fields. In the Middle Ages many men, by co-operation, could make wise rules for their guilds and see that they were kept, or they could force a powerful lord to give their town a charter. True co-operation means that minds as well as hands are working together toward a common purpose. By co-operation the colonies of America built a nation, and only by co-operating can the nations hope to build a better world.

The fourth word is *democracy.* Freedom and co-operation result in democracy. The Greeks gave us this word, meaning government by the people. To Americans today democracy means equal rights and equal opportunity for all. It means for each a chance to solve his own problems, to choose his own way to live, to work, to learn, and to be happy. The Greeks first gave Western nations the idea of democracy. The Romans worked out a system of law and good government which democratic peoples could use. From the Hebrews came the Christian religion, teaching that all men are brothers.

The belief in brotherhood and the equality of all men and women has slowly and steadily grown wherever people have worked together for real democracy. For democracy is not just a word we have learned from the Greeks. Democracy is a high ideal for which many people have fought hard and worked hard. The English people who refused to submit to a tyrannical king, the French people who gave their lives in a bloody revolution, all have contributed to the growth of democracy in our modern world.

People in many parts of our world today have not yet gained democracy for themselves and their countries. But it is important to remember that democracy cannot be *given* to any people. It must be earnestly desired and carefully built upon a solid foundation of freedom and co-operation. Freedom is a precious right for which people must be ready to work and suffer. Co-operation is the only way by which freedom can be won and kept. Democracy is the condition which best makes possible a full and happy life for any people.

This is the story of our world, the story of civilization, the growth of freedom, and the co-operation which produces democracy. These four words give us the key to the world of the past which has made the world of today. The same four words are the key to the future. They must guide us in thinking about the world as it may be in years to come.

Hilltop Questions

1. What do we mean by colonial countries?
2. What is the difference between an independent nation and a free country?
3. What are the four key words to understanding the story of the nations which we have studied?
4. Can you explain the meaning we have found for each word?
5. What does democracy mean to an American?

Questions Which Take Thinking

1. Why do you think our form of government is a good one?

2. Are there any other countries which have a democratic form of government? Can you name one?

3. Do you think that other countries should have a form of government just like ours? Why or why not?

4. What should we hope for and work toward?

5. You have learned about the four keys. Do you think a country can lack one or more of these and still have the others? Why do you think so?

Interesting Things to Do

Talk over with your teacher and your classmates possible plans for a review of the year's work. It might be worth while to invite your parents and friends to see what you have been studying. Below are some suggestions for an entertainment, or exhibit, with which to close the year. Perhaps you can think of something better than any of these.

1. A festival of nations.

2. A world supper, foods from many countries.

3. A world's fair.

4. A pageant of history, with one subject, such as co-operation or freedom at different periods.

5. Perhaps the class can have a discussion of how each person can play his own part in the development of the four keys in his own country and in the world. Each pupil should turn in a brief report on this subject and the best can be read in the conference.

6. A United Nations Conference, with reports of things you would like to see done to work out some of the problems of nations.

Interesting Books about Africa and the Pacific Lands

BEST, HERBERT. *Garram the Hunter.* Doubleday, Doran & Company, Inc., New York, 1930. Adventures of the son of an African chief and his dog Kon, showing us the customs of the hill tribes of Africa.

HOGARTH, GRACE ALLEN. *Australia: the Island Continent.* Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1943. Good historical background, very interesting with many pictures.

SPERRY, ARMSTRONG. *Call It Courage.* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1940. Legend of a Polynesian boy who conquers his fear of the sea.

SPERRY, ARMSTRONG. *One Day with Jambi.* The John C. Winston Company, Philadelphia, 1934. A boy's everyday doings on the island of Sumatra.

SPERRY, ARMSTRONG. *One Day with Manu.* The John C. Winston Company, Philadelphia, 1933. Life in the South Seas.

STINETORF, LOUISE A. *Children of North Africa.* J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia, 1943.

STINETORF, LOUISE A. *Children of South Africa.* J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia, 1945. Short stories of children of different races who live in Africa. The children are real, and the descriptions of life and customs very interesting.

Appendix



KEY TO NUMBERS

CENTRAL AMERICA

1. British Honduras
2. Costa Rica
3. El Salvador
4. Guatemala
5. Honduras
6. Nicaragua
7. Panama

SOUTH AMERICA

1. British Guiana
2. Ecuador
3. French Guiana
4. Paraguay
5. Surinam
6. Uruguay

EUROPE

1. Albania
2. Austria
3. Belgium
4. Bulgaria
5. Czechoslovakia
6. Denmark
7. Ireland
8. England
9. Germany
10. Greece
11. Hungary
12. Netherlands
13. Northern Ireland
14. Poland



15. Portugal
16. Rumania
17. Scotland
18. Switzerland
19. Wales
20. Yugoslavia

AFRICA

1. Ashanti and Gold Coast
2. Bechuanaland
3. British Somaliland
4. Eritrea
5. French Somaliland
6. Italian Somaliland
7. Liberia
8. Nyasaland
9. Portuguese Guinea
10. Sierra Leone
11. Tunisia
12. Uganda

ASIA

1. Bhutan
2. Hashemite Jordan
3. Inner Mongolia
4. Iraq
5. Israel
6. Malaya
7. Nepal
8. Oman
9. Syria and Lebanon
10. Thailand
11. Yemen

UNITED STATES

LEGEND

City	Population
New York	Over 1,000,000
San Francisco	500,000 - 1,000,000
Denver	100,000 - 500,000
Baton Rouge	Under 100,000

0 — 188

1 inch equals 188 miles

op

470

BRITISH COLUMBIA
ALBERTA
SASKATCHEWAN
Regina
Calgary
Vancouver
Seattle
Olympia
WASHINGTON
Columbia R.
Spokane
Portland
Columbia R.
Salem
OREGON
IDAHO
Boise
Snake R.
Pocatello
MONTANA
Helena
Butte
Milk R.
Missouri R.
Yellowstone R.
NORTH DAKOT
Bismark
Pierre
SOUTH DAKOT
WYOMING
Casper
Cheyenne
NEBRASK
Platte R.
Great Salt Lake
Ogden
Salt Lake City
NEVADA
Reno
Carson City
Sacramento
CALIFORNIA
San Francisco
UTAH
Colorado R.
Denver
COLORADO
Colorado Springs
Pueblo
Arkansas R.
KAN
Las Vegas
Los Angeles
San Diego
ARIZONA
Phoenix
Gila R.
Tucson
Albuquerque
Sante Fe
NEW MEXICO
Rio Grande
Amarillo
Oklahoma
OKL
Red R.
Pecos R.
TEX
Austi
San Antor
Rio Grande
MEXICO
Gulf of California
Pacific Ocean
130°
125°
120°
115°
110°
105°
100°
45°
40°
35°
30°


Lake of the Woods
Lake Superior
Duluth
MINNESOTA
St. Paul
Minneapolis
WISCONSIN
Madison
Milwaukee
Lake Michigan
MICHIGAN
Grand Rapids
Lansing
Detroit
Lake Huron
Lake Erie
Toronto
Lake Ontario
Rochester
Buffalo
NEW YORK
Ottawa
Ottawa R.
Quebec
St. Lawrence R.
Montreal
Albany
Hudson R.
Scranton
Delaware R.
PENNSYLVANIA
Pittsburgh
Harrisburg
Philadelphia
N. J.
Newark
Trenton
Wilmington
Baltimore
MD.
Dover
DELAWARE
Chesapeake Bay
Annapolis
Washington
District of Columbia
VIRGINIA
Richmond
Norfolk
Roanoke
WEST VIRGINIA
Charleston
Wheeling
OHIO
Columbus
Cleveland
Toledo
Akron
Chicago
Gary
South Bend
Wabash R.
INDIANA
Indianapolis
Cincinnati
Ohio R.
Frankfort
Louisville
KENTUCKY
ILLINOIS
Peoria
Springfield
Mississippi R.
IOWA
Sioux City
Omaha
Des Moines
Missouri R.
Kansas City
Jefferson City
St. Louis
MISSOURI
Topeka
Tulsa
Fort Smith
ARKANSAS
Little Rock
Hot Springs
Red R.
Shreveport
LOUISIANA
Baton Rouge
New Orleans
Houston
Galveston
Memphis
Tennessee R.
Nashville
TENNESSEE
Knoxville
Chattanooga
Asheville
Charlotte
NORTH CAROLINA
Raleigh
SOUTH CAROLINA
Columbia
Charleston
Savannah R.
Augusta
Atlanta
Chattahoochee R.
GEORGIA
Savannah
Birmingham
ALABAMA
Montgomery
Alabama R.
Mobile
Tallahassee
Jackson
Vicksburg
Jacksonville
FLORIDA
Tampa
Miami
Gulfport
Gulf of Mexico
MAINE
Augusta
Portland
Montpelier
Burlington
VT.
N.H.
Concord
Manchester
Boston
MASS.
Springfield
Providence
R.I.
Hartford
CONN.
New Haven
New York
Atlantic Ocean
95°
90°
85°
80°
75°
40°
35°
30°
25°

Some Facts about Our World

Table I

The

Seven Continents

	Area in Square Miles	Population
Africa	11,500,000	193,500,000
Antarctica	5,000,000	
Asia	17,000,000	1,319,000,000
Australia	2,975,000	7,700,000
Europe	3,750,000	510,000,000
North America	8,500,000	211,000,000
South America	6,800,000	105,000,000

Table II

Areas, Populations, and Capitals of the Principal Countries of the World

	Area in Square Miles	Population	Capital City	Population of Capital
NORTH AMERICA				
Alaska	586,400	90,000	Juneau	5,748
British Honduras	8,867	62,000	Belize	21,886
Canada	3,843,144	13,200,000	Ottawa	154,951
Costa Rica	19,238	825,000	San José	90,615
Cuba	44,217	5,200,000	Havana	800,000
Dominican Republic	19,129	2,200,000	Ciudad Trujillo	165,000
El Salvador	13,176	2,100,000	San Salvador	110,435
Greenland	736,518	22,000	Godthaab	1,313
Guatemala	42,044	3,750,000	Guatemala City	225,000
Haiti	10,700	3,700,000	Port-au-Prince	125,000
Honduras	59,160	1,250,000	Tegucigalpa	62,263
Mexico	758,550	24,500,000	Mexico City	2,043,574
Nicaragua	57,144	1,150,000	Managua	146,819
Panama	28,575	750,000	Panama City	146,117
United States	3,022,387	150,600,000	Washington, D.C.	802,178
SOUTH AMERICA				
Argentina	1,072,745	16,300,000	Buenos Aires	3,000,371
Bolivia	416,040	4,000,000	Sucre	32,000
Brazil	3,286,169	48,500,000	Rio de Janeiro	2,091,160
British Guiana	89,480	390,000	Georgetown	73,541
Chile	286,396	5,700,000	Santiago	1,046,857
Colombia	439,825	10,800,000	Bogotá	443,520
Ecuador	104,510	3,350,000	Quito	200,185
French Guiana	34,740	29,000	Cayenne	10,961
Paraguay	150,516	1,270,000	Asunción	130,067
Peru	482,257	8,000,000	Lima	657,824
Surinam	54,291	186,000	Paramaribo	71,000
Uruguay	72,172	2,350,000	Montevideo	850,000
Venezuela	352,141	4,500,000	Caracas	266,706
EUROPE				
Albania	10,629	1,175,000	Tiranë	35,000
Austria	32,341	7,000,000	Vienna	1,730,613

	Area in Square Miles	Population	Capital City	Population of Capital
Belgium	11,775	8,500,000	Brussels	1,296,687
Bulgaria	42,725	7,000,000	Sofia	434,888
Czechoslovakia	49,330	12,500,000	Prague	921,416
Denmark	16,575	4,200,000	Copenhagen	731,707
England and Wales	58,340	43,500,000	London	8,367,000
Finland	130,116	4,000,000	Helsinki	358,195
France	212,659	41,500,000	Paris	2,725,374
Germany, East	41,841	20,500,000		
Germany, West	95,800	47,850,000	Bonn	101,391
Greece	51,300	7,800,000	Athens	481,225
Hungary	35,875	9,200,000	Budapest	1,164,963
Iceland	39,709	137,000	Reykjavik	46,578
Ireland, Republic of	26,601	3,000,000	Dublin	506,635
Italy	119,764	46,000,000	Rome	1,613,660
Luxembourg	999	293,000	Luxembourg	61,996
Netherlands	13,203	9,900,000	Amsterdam	832,583
Northern Ireland	5,237	1,350,000	Belfast	450,000
Norway	124,556	3,200,000	Oslo	289,000
Poland	120,000	24,000,000	Warsaw	630,024
Portugal	34,254	8,500,000	Lisbon	709,179
Rumania	91,624	16,000,000	Bucharest	1,401,807
Scotland	30,405	5,150,000	Edinburgh	487,300
Spain	190,042	27,750,000	Madrid	1,440,041
Sweden	173,403	7,000,000	Stockholm	732,281
Switzerland	15,944	4,600,000	Berne	136,700
United Kingdom	93,982	50,000,000	London	8,367,000
Yugoslavia	96,200	16,000,000	Belgrade	388,246
EURASIA				
Soviet Union	8,548,478	193,000,000	Moscow	4,137,018
Turkey	296,903	19,500,000	Ankara	226,712
ASIA				
Afghanistan	250,000	12,000,000	Kabul	206,200
Burma	261,610	17,000,000	Rangoon	501,291
Ceylon	25,332	7,000,000	Colombo	362,000
Chinese Republic	3,750,106	463,500,000	Peking	1,721,546
French Indo-China	286,000	27,000,000	Hanoi	160,000
Hashemite Jordan	34,750	400,000	Amman	60,000
India	1,221,000	342,000,000	Delhi	521,849
Indonesia	735,268	76,000,000	Jakarta	1,200,000
Iran	628,000	17,000,000	Tehran	850,000
Iraq	116,600	5,000,000	Baghdad	832,927
Israel	5,678	800,000	Jaffa-Tel Aviv	300,000
Japan	147,702	80,000,000	Tokyo	3,442,106
Korea	85,249	28,000,000		
Lebanon	4,000	1,250,000	Beirut	247,000
Malaya	50,966	5,000,000	Kuala Lumpur	111,418
Outer Mongolia	622,744	2,000,000	Ulan Bator	70,000
Pakistan	361,000	73,000,000	Karachi	359,492
Philippine Islands	115,600	20,000,000	Manila	1,300,000
Saudi Arabia	700,000	6,000,000	Riyadh	60,000
Syria	74,000	3,750,000	Damascus	342,000
Thailand	200,148	18,000,000	Bangkok	827,290
Yemen	75,000	7,000,000	San'a	25,000
AUSTRALASIA				
Australia	2,974,581	7,700,000	Canberra	7,325
New Zealand	103,723	1,840,000	Wellington	186,000

	Area in Square Miles	Population	Capital City	Population of Capital
AFRICA				
Algeria	847,500	8,700,000	Algiers	315,210
Anglo-Egyptian Sudan	967,500	8,000,000	Khartoum	61,800
Angola	481,351	4,600,000	São Paulo de Luanda	40,000
Bechuanaland	275,000	300,000	Mafeking	4,666
Belgian Congo	902,082	10,800,000	Léopoldville	116,468
British Somaliland	68,000	700,000	Berbera	15,000, hot season 30,000, cold season
Egypt	386,198	19,500,000	Cairo	2,100,506
Eritrea	15,754	1,000,000	Asmara	12,601
Ethiopia	350,000	15,000,000	Addis Ababa	250,000
French Equatorial Africa	959,256	4,000,000	Brazzaville	83,579
French West Africa	1,815,768	16,000,000	Dakar	185,000
Gold Coast	91,843	3,700,000	Accra	72,977
Italian Somaliland	194,000	1,000,000	Mogadishu	55,000 (1939 pop.)
Kenya	224,960	5,000,000	Nairobi	65,000
Liberia	43,000	1,600,000	Monrovia	12,000
Libya	679,358	1,000,000	Tripoli	108,240
Madagascar	241,094	4,400,000	Antananarivo	165,477
Morocco, French	165,800	8,300,000	Rabat	161,416
Morocco, Spanish	17,631	1,100,000	Tetuan	49,535
Mozambique	297,731	6,250,000	Lourenco Marques	48,000
Nigeria	372,674	24,000,000	Lagos	167,000
Northern Rhodesia	290,320	1,700,000	Lusaka	2,396
Nyasaland	47,949	2,200,000	Zomba	3,000
Portuguese Guinea	13,948	431,000	Bissau	1,000
Sierra Leone	27,669	2,000,000	Freetown	55,358
Southern Rhodesia	150,333	2,000,000	Salisbury	32,846
Southwest Africa	317,725	369,000	Windhoek	10,585
Tanganyika	360,000	7,000,000	Dar es Salaam	74,036
Tunisia	48,300	3,400,000	Tunis	364,593
Uganda	93,981	5,000,000	Entebbe	6,000
Union of South Africa	472,494	12,000,000	Pretoria	236,367

Table III · Area and Population of States of the United States, Census of 1950

	SQ. MILES	POPULATION		SQ. MILES	POPULATION		SQ. MILES	POPULATION
Alabama	51,609	3,061,743	Michigan	58,216	6,371,766	Tennessee	42,246	3,291,718
Arizona	113,909	749,587	Minnesota	84,068	2,982,483	Texas	267,339	7,711,194
Arkansas	53,102	1,909,511	Mississippi	47,716	2,178,914	Utah	84,916	688,862
California	158,693	10,586,223	Missouri	69,674	3,954,653	Vermont	9,609	377,747
Colorado	104,247	1,325,089	Montana	147,138	591,024	Virginia	40,815	3,318,680
Connecticut	5,009	2,007,280	Nebraska	77,237	1,325,510	Washington	68,192	2,378,963
Delaware	2,057	318,085	Nevada	110,540	160,083	West Virginia	24,181	2,005,552
District of Columbia	69	802,178	New Hampshire	9,304	533,242	Wisconsin	56,154	3,434,575
Florida	58,560	2,771,305	New Jersey	7,836	4,835,329	Wyoming	97,914	290,529
Georgia	58,876	3,444,578	New Mexico	121,666	681,187			
Idaho	83,557	588,637	New York	49,576	14,830,192	OUTLYING LANDS (PRELIMINARY FIGURES)		
Illinois	56,400	8,712,176	North Carolina	52,712	4,061,929	Alaska	586,400	126,661
Indiana	36,291	3,934,224	North Dakota	70,665	619,636	American Samoa	76	18,602
Iowa	56,280	2,621,073	Ohio	41,222	7,946,627	Guam	206	58,754
Kansas	82,276	1,905,299	Oklahoma	69,919	2,233,351	Hawaii	6,407	493,437
Kentucky	40,395	2,944,806	Oregon	96,981	1,521,341	Pacific Islands under U.S. Trusteeship	829	54,000
Louisiana	48,523	2,683,516	Pennsylvania	45,333	10,498,012	Panama Canal Zone	549	52,300
Maine	33,215	913,774	Rhode Island	1,214	791,896	Puerto Rico	3,435	2,205,398
Maryland	10,577	2,343,001	South Carolina	31,055	2,117,027	Virgin Islands	133	26,654
Massachusetts	8,257	4,690,514	South Dakota	77,047	652,740			

Index and Pronouncing Vocabulary

KEY

făt—fāte—câre—necklâce—ärm—àsk—*ă*ccount—sof*à*
mĕt—mēte—hȩre—ênough—hēr—silĕnt
ĭt—īce
nŏt—nōte—ôbey—hôrse—*c*ŏnnect
ŭs—ūse—ûnite—fûr—circ*ŭ*s
fo͝ot—fo͞od
oi *as in* oil—ou *as in* out
iṉk—ba*th*e—nat*u*̱re

Map pages are given in italic, *157*.

abbot (ăb′ŭt), 121
Abyssinia (ăb ĭ sĭn′ĭ *à*). *See* Ethiopia
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Adana (ä dä nä′), 312
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